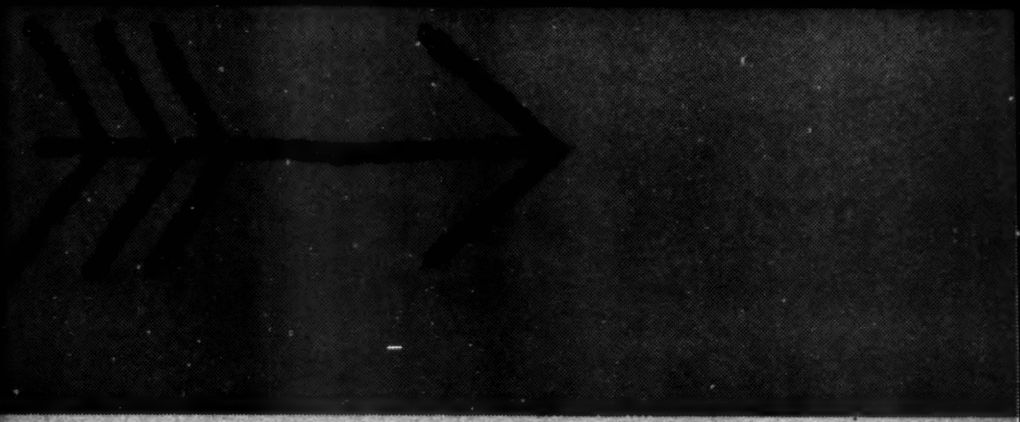
# TRENDS IN EDUCATION



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LEA Planning
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Business Studies
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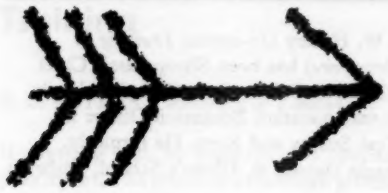

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*The opinions expressed in* Trends in Education
*are the writer's own. They may not necessarily be in accordance with the views of the Department of Education and Science*

*The third in our series on the work of the colleges of education asks some basic questions about the aims and methods of teachers.*

# Theory and Practice in Teacher Training

R. S. PETERS, *University of London*

If anything is to be regarded as a specific preparation for teaching, priority must be given to a thorough grounding in something to teach. There are other things which a teacher must know as well—about children, for instance, and the social conditions which shape their lives. But social workers, therapists, and youth employment officers must also know about these things. A teacher, in so far as he is concerned with teaching, must have mastered something which he can impart to others. Without this he would be like an actor who was exquisitively sensitive to the reactions of an audience, a master of gesture and of subtle inflexions of voice, but who omitted to do one thing—to learn his words.

'Teaching' includes a host of activities that have in common the structuring of a situation in such a way that something can be learnt. This can involve formal methods of instruction or informal ways of arranging things so that children will be led to find out things for themselves. I have only one major conviction about methods of teaching—that no overall generalisations about them are possible. Everything depends upon what is being taught, to whom, by whom, and to how many. I am certain, however, that informal methods are much more demanding of the teacher than more formal methods. What is demanded is not simply efficiency of organisation and a grasp of what is going on outside the teaching space, but also knowledge and understanding that is available at any time—not just after one has managed to look it all up.

Too frequently one hears heads nowadays say things like 'I am not fussy about the methods young teachers use. After all there are all sorts of experiments going on and they have to try them out. But the trouble is that they do not really understand the stuff they are meant to be teaching'. This mastery of content is more than ever necessary nowadays in the light of various attempts to develop a topic-centred curriculum in many schools. For my impression is that, if such experiments are to prove more than a new set of gimmicks, they will require a *more* thorough grasp of the forms of thinking that are to be so integrated than the more traditional subject centred curriculum. And if we reflect on the possibility of turning out teachers who have such an improved understanding of content, we are immediately confronted with one of the anomalies of our present system of teacher-training.

## Curriculum Courses

There prevails in most colleges of education the doctrine that an

'academic' subject which she may never have to teach can be studied for the 'personal development' of a primary teacher, and that therefore the onus of providing a grounding for what has to be taught falls on those responsible for curriculum courses. Here we come face to face with the situation which often seems as acute a source of embarrassment, insecurity, and conflict in colleges as sex once was and class now is in society at large. It is this: those who have a thorough understanding of mathematics, science, social studies, music, English, religion, and so on, tend to be those whose teaching experience has predominantly been with older children. Yet, if they are responsible for curriculum courses, they have to instruct students in how to teach these subjects to younger children about whose minds they know very little. Education lecturers, on the other hand, know plenty about small children but their knowledge of subjects is usually pretty rudimentary. Indeed they are sometimes not above rationalising their ignorance by proclaiming that there are no distinct ways of being aware of the world. They are right, of course, about the minds of young children and about primitive peoples whose beliefs are comparatively undifferentiated. But they are not right about the minds of educated people since 'the enlightenment'.

There are, however, important educational truths contained in this stress on wholeness. In the first place we would not call a person educated whose understanding was narrowly specialised in one way of viewing the world—who saw a car only as a piece of machinery without aesthetic grace, without a history, and without potentialities for human good or ill. In the second place forms of understanding make use of each other—physics or mathematics, history of the social sciences, and moral judgments of psychological understanding. These ways of stressing 'wholeness' are quite consistent with the differentiation of mind into those forms of understanding into which it is the business of modern teachers gradually to initiate another generation.

This stress on 'integration' provides a clue also both to how this problem of the dichotomy between knowledge of subjects and knowledge of children can be dealt with, especially in a large college, and to one of the main functions of the 'education' course. It is my conviction that curriculum courses, together with teaching practice, provide a fine opportunity for fruitful collaboration between education and subject specialists which would do much to provide a more thorough grounding for students in the content and methods of the various curriculum subjects. It should also ease some of the tensions and insecurities that now exist in many colleges. Each age range could have a team drawn partly from subject specialists and partly from education specialists. In the teaching of science, for instance, at the junior level there would be a subject specialist trained in science together with an education lecturer familiar with Piaget's and Bruner's work on the development of scientific concepts: it is hoped, too, that one or other of them would have thought about the philosophy of science and about the point of teaching it. And so on with the other subjects. Indeed I would like to cement the bonds even more closely by encouraging subject lecturers to do in-service training on child development and the philosophy of education and education lecturers to do in-service courses on the relevant curriculum subjects. Each lecturer would have, of course, his basic loyalty to his education or subject department. But he would have also a subsidiary loyalty to an

age range team responsible for curriculum courses and teaching practice, thereby institutionalizing an integration which ought gradually to develop in the minds of all concerned.

It might be objected that I am laying too much stress on subject content and too little on the development of each individual child. But this would be to misunderstand my position. For I would maintain that it is impossible to characterize what is *meant* by 'development' without reference to the ways of being aware of the world and of other people—moral, interpersonal, scientific, aesthetic, historical, religious —which are constitutive of the development of mind. What we call 'school-subjects' may be highly contingent affairs, depending on convenience and historical traditions. But forms of awareness, each with their own types of truth-criteria and methods of validation, are not so contingent. They represent the main ways in which man has learnt to make sense of the world and to organise his reactions to it.

This, then, would be the first priority for 'education' as a specific preparation for teaching—collaboration with subject specialists in curriculum courses and teaching practice in order to provide a firm and solid foundation for the basic task of any teacher—that of helping a new generation to make something of themselves by the development of those forms of understanding and awareness which are constitutive of what it means to be 'educated'.

## General Theory of Education

My next priority for 'education' as a specific preparation for teaching would be a thorough grounding in teaching the skills—reading, spelling, and writing, especially reading, which is one of the 'basic needs' of any child in our culture. Joyce Morris' work has made us familiar enough with the deficiencies in this sphere of the preparation of many junior teachers. But the infant teachers who have sent up so many illiterates from their classes cannot be altogether absolved from responsibility for their plight. This state of affairs has come to be not only because of well-meaning woolliness about 'reading-readiness' but also because of sheer lack of training in the teaching of skills.

And so we come to what is often called 'general theory of education' as distinct from that part of it which is concerned with the logical and psychological aspects of teaching the different subjects—and with the content of the skills that are necessary conditions for development within them. In this area, there has been a steady move away from what I once called the 'undifferentiated mush' of the educational theory of the past and an attempt to approach general problems of teaching and learning in a more precise and informed way from the standpoint of the distinct disciplines of philosophy, psychology, sociology, and history which, logically speaking, contribute to them. This conception of educational theory has been elaborated in the book called *The Study of Education* edited by Professor Tibble and recently published by Kegan Paul. I am often worried, however, about what may happen to education courses if they get into the hands of those who are too zealous about their own specialism and too intolerant of past traditions—especially if they have the stick of the B.Ed which they can brandish over the head of their bemused students. Already one hears cases of philosophers and sociologists, with little understanding of primary schools or of the minds of the students they

teach, slapping on formal courses in their own disciplines too early, in too abstract a manner, and without the students being ready for them.

There is also the very important matter of 'integration', already referred to in the context of relating the teaching of 'education' closely to curriculum subjects. This applies also to the desirability of keeping together the philosophical, psychological, and sociological components of educational theory. Even if topics are treated in an increasingly differentiated way as the course proceeds, there is no reason why a central core of topics should not be selected to which all branches of educational theory can contribute and which can be dealt with from these different points of view. In this way students would gradually be provided with the tools for working out what they themselves think about the problems that confront them and they would not be brought up on a one-sided diet like the staple diet which was all that was available when psychology was the only part of educational theory which had been differentiated.

The education course as a whole can surely be viewed as a kind of spiral in which, as the years proceed, a range of problems keep on cropping up and can be treated with more and more depth and differentiation. Questions such as 'Should children be punished at school?' or 'What is the educational significance of play?' or 'Can morality be taught?' or 'When should children learn to read?' can be answered at all sorts of different levels. They could form the subject of discussions with students early on in an education course in which students are scarcely aware of the distinction between philosophical and psychological questions. Or they could be treated as topics at M.A. level.

As students proceed up the spiral of the education course they should keep on coming round to problems that they have encountered before. But as they develop they should begin to be more and more sensitive to the different types of question that are concealed in these general problems, and their understanding of them should be both broadened and deepened by a proper combination of theory with practice.

In the three-year course we are primarily concerned with turning out good teachers, not with training philosophers, psychologists, or sociologists. The most we can hope for is that teachers will be increasingly sensitized to these different ways of looking at practical problems and consequently go about their business in a more clear-headed and informed manner.

## Influence of Theory on Practice

It is a matter of logical necessity that a teacher must have something to teach. This conclusion is secure at least if we want to build on a rock-bottom foundation in determining what counts as a specific preparation for teaching. But when dealing with general theory of education we are dealing with more speculative matters.

The research on these matters collected together by Wallen and Travers[1] may make depressing reading for any educational theorist. The theme that runs through the article is that of the lack of evidence supporting many of our cherished convictions about the effect of theory on practice. There is evidence all right that the student develops

[1] 'Analysis and Investigation of Teaching Methods' in Gage, N. L., *Handbook of Research on Teaching* (Rand McNally, Chicago, 1963).

an affective response towards a number of ideas related to education, and that these affective responses come to be supported by a cognitive structure. But there is little evidence to suggest that these ideas become translated into action systems through which the results of teacher training may be manifested in the class-room. Many teacher-training programmes, for instance, concentrate on giving a deep and extensive understanding of children and their development. But

> 'The little evidence available at present suggests that most teachers have relatively little understanding of their pupils and that differences in understanding which occur from one teacher to another have little effect on the learning process' (p. 458).

The effect of training programmes on the practice of teachers in classrooms is nugatory compared with the influence of models in their past with whom they identify and of demands springing from their own personalities. The teacher, for instance, who is never happy unless he has some highly structured formal situation in which he can talk in an uninterrupted fashion, is not likely to be practising a method that has the blessing of his college or the support of a volume of research findings. He is much more likely to be responding to some inner need or copying some early exemplar. It is depressing to find, too, how little evidence psychology has in fact provided for methods which are advocated with a fervour more appropriate to religious causes. Even more depressing is the speed with which educationalists have embraced psychological theories which seem vaguely to support convictions derived from other sources—for instance the widespread acceptance of Gestalt psychology by those who were advocates of 'wholeness', or the popularity of Piaget amongst those who are convinced of the importance of do-it-yourself methods. How rarely does one find educational theorists following the elementary advice dating back to Francis Bacon that we should look for negative instances, that we should consciously look for counter-examples to refute our cherished theories? But as Bacon pointed out, this emphasis on falsification, which is the kernel of the scientific method, goes against our inveterate tendency to believe what we wish to be true. Educationalists in the grip of an ideology are particularly prone to this common human failing.

If we were bent on bringing to bear some fairly solid influence on practice during teacher training we might be wise to experiment much more radically with the systematic apprenticeship of students to experienced teachers whose practices had been shown to be effective. General considerations about the imparting of ways of behaving adduced by Oakeshott in his 'Political Education' and 'Teaching and Learning'[1] would support these hints from research. For how to organise a situation efficiently so that many children can learn, either individually or as a class, is such a complicated skill that it could not possibly be learnt without plenty of practice on the spot. If this practice is not modelled on that of some current exemplar, the overwhelming likelihood is that the teacher will revert to some earlier exemplar. For no one could begin to teach without identifying to a certain extent with someone from whom the practices could be picked up. And the exemplars which would probably exert this hidden

[1]In Peters, R. S., (ed.,) *The Concept of Education* (Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1967).

influence are likely to be a mixed bag, to put it mildly. In the nature of the case, too, they are unlikely to be those who were adept at methods appropriate to the primary stage of education.

The fact, however, that there is little evidence for the immediate influence of theory on practice should not unduly depress us. For I would never have expected there to be any such sudden transformation. For teaching is not a technology in which theoretical findings can be immediately fed in to practice and applied in any simple straightforward way. There are, of course, some things of an elementary sort that fall into this category, such as the use of rest-pauses, incentives, and practices. But most of teaching involves a highly subtle moralised inter-relationship between persons which cannot be reduced to a collection of techniques without debasing the relationships involved and making them less than personal. The effect of theory should therefore be long-term—the gradual transformation of a person's view of children, of himself, and of the situation in which he is acting.

In my view the main function of educational theory in the initial stage of training should be to remove certain naivetes that students bring to the educational situation through having only participated in it at the consumer end, and gradually to restructure their view of the situation in which they have to act. It should sensitize their awareness of what they are doing so that they will not despise it or be impatient with it but develop a determination to get down to it properly at a later stage when they have had enough experience for it to be fully meaningful to them. I stress the approach to educational theory via practical problems partly because this reflects my own view of the nature of educational theory and partly because I think that this type of approach is more likely than any other approach to stimulate students to think more about what they are doing.

The traditional approach to teacher training has been to supplement a basic training in subjects and the handing on of skills by an attempt to bring about commitment to some sort of ideology. The ideology was conveyed by what is often called 'Principles of Education' backed up by a smattering of the right sort of psychology. This was peculiarly appropriate to small single-sex colleges staffed largely by dedicated women. The time for this is now passing. Colleges are getting much larger and mixed; there are problems of discipline and consensus; and all sorts of new ideas are flowing into them. The educational system of the country is in a highly fluid state; there is little agreement about the aims of education; the curriculum is everywhere under discussion; teaching methods are constantly being queried and the lack of established knowledge about their effectiveness is becoming patent to any serious student of education.

In a situation like this any cosy ideology is not only an irrelevance; it can also positively hamstring a teacher. I heard of a case a few weeks ago where a student dutifully set up an interest table in one of our tougher types of London school. The children calmly swiped the lot. The supervisor complained to the head who remarked that he had put the student in the best behaved class in the school and that the children in this school were not ready for those sorts of methods. 'But I cannot give up my principles' protested the lecturer. But *Half Our Future* have a past which renders them initially unresponsive to methods more suitable to children emerging from middle-class homes, which

provide not only plenty of language and materials, but also attitudes favourable to learning and a system of social control that is responsive to individual differences. If we are going to be child-centred, for heaven's sake let us actually study the children whom we have to teach. Bernstein's work suggests that in the case of socially disadvantaged children in our infant schools the teacher may need to control and plan the cognitive, linguistic, and social explorations of the child more than in the case of privileged children. There is also the problem created by the shortage of places in schools for teaching practice. Students are now having increasingly to do their practices in the sorts of schools in which they may later have to teach!

The moral of all this is not, of course, that we should throw overboard all that has been learnt from 'progressive' methods and revert to archaic systems of undiluted mass instruction. It is rather that we should do all in our power to help teachers to develop a critical, empirical, adaptable attitude to methods of teaching and encourage them to learn to think on their feet and experiment with different ways of teaching different types of subjects to different types of children. We should regard it as a blot on a college if a student's first concern on teaching practice is to discover *the* method approved of by her supervisors, for fear of being marked down if she tries something on her own. We should also regard it as a blot if we hear, as we too often *do* hear, a sensible remark prefaced by the phrase 'Though I scarcely dare say it within the walls of my college . . .' What are colleges of education? Centres of indoctrination, or places where students—and staff for that matter—can learn to think fearlessly for themselves? If only this critical, experimental attitude to teaching could be more encouraged we might soon cease to turn out teachers who thought that if they can only keep talking—or stop talking—then children are necessarily learning something, or teachers who practise something approximating to a free day without keeping a careful check on what in fact each child has learnt. Better still, we might turn out no teachers for whom 'teaching' has become a dirty word.

The development of a critical, independent, experimental approach to problems of teaching is a lengthy business. It is an exercise in education, not in any narrowly conceived system of training. If students go out from our colleges with at least the rudiments of this they will have as 'specific' a preparation for teaching under modern conditions as any course in 'education' can provide at the level of initial training. They may even begin to tell us that their course in educational theory is as valuable a part of their training as their study of subjects and their teaching practice!

*The Chief Education Officer of Southend-on-Sea discusses some of the problems of planning educational provision in a medium-sized county borough.*

# Planning at Local Level

D. B. BARTLETT

I am sure that members of every profession have particular nightmares associated with their work, and education officers are no exception. While many in local and central government share the responsibility for educational planning and school building, the special nightmare reserved for the education officer is one which would result from educational planning gone wrong—a magnificent school, well built and equipped, with no children to fill it. The building of all educational premises is the result of close co-operation between many individuals and many agencies, but one department in a local authority and its chief officer have to be ultimately responsible, and this is one of the responsibilities of the education officer.

The basic requirements of, and the necessity for, educational planning are the same in all education authorities, whether large or small, whether county or county borough, but details of practice must vary according to the nature of the LEA concerned. While therefore an account of educational planning in a medium sized county borough gives a picture of practice which may be largely common to authorities of the same type and size, it must not be expected to reflect completely the practice in smaller authorities or in very large counties and county boroughs, for while principles are similar, practice will differ.

Who starts the planning, and on what is it based? There is no need to trace here the development of educational planning from the early part of the nineteenth century, and some datum line for present planning has to be accepted. For the present day this is the Education Act of 1944 which placed responsibilities upon the defined local education authorities, and set out clearly the educational planning required and its purpose. Section 11 required every local education authority to estimate the immediate and prospective needs of its area as to primary and secondary schools, and Section 42 required the preparation and submission to the Minister, of schemes of further education. As far as broad plans were concerned, therefore, the Education Act set the ball rolling. As far as individual projects are concerned, the start is not quite as clear. It may be from the DES, a member of the Inspectorate, members of education committees, but most probably it will be made by the chief education officer, for it is his duty to keep continually under review the educational needs at all levels of the community which he serves. He and his colleagues in the education office live with such problems, and while particular ideas may occur at odd times it is probable that new projects will be the result of general thought over a long period and particular consideration on a specific occasion.

Following such milestones in the national development of education

as are indicated by Education Acts, educational planning is clearly concerned with the provision of premises—schools, colleges, youth centres, colleges of education, but during the period from one Act to another educational planning may partly change its nature. Once the period of 'roofs over heads' has been passed, more attention can be paid to the function of education and the way in which this is translated into educational courses and the buildings which can make new courses possible. The two processes are closely inter-woven and at no time is one going on without the other, but it may be reasonable to suggest that whereas in the late 1940s and early 1950s, with a less complicated educational programme, planning concentrated more on the provision of buildings, in the 1960s the development of new educational theory and practice has resulted in more attention being given to the meaning of education at its different stages. Developments in educational thought are having a greater effect upon premises and the planning of premises than was the case 15 years ago.

What might be called traditional educational planning, that is the provision of premises, occupies an important part in the work of education officers. It can be regarded as being of two kinds. The more usual is that of planning over a long period when the needs of an area over many years are projected in association with a development plan, or with the implementation of a new policy (like the reorganisation of secondary education), or with specific features of population growth. This last may be the result of normal growth or of legislation, as for example the raising of the school leaving age. The other type of planning, while it has long-term implications, might be described as short term, for it is designed to meet the needs of a particular situation in a part of the authority's area at a particular time. This could be the result of new housing and the designation of districts for rapid development. While a housing authority, following a decision to develop an area, can produce the first houses for occupation within two years, it generally takes much longer than this to have a school ready, however fast the DES and a local authority can act.

## Long Term Planning

The need to produce long-term development plans only arises at intervals. While in itself such an exercise is extremely valuable, an authority's area is always changing so that plans have to be flexible. Such long-term plans provide a valuable framework for overall development, and their preparation has helped authorities to plan wisely and to look ahead for sites and buildings. These plans may cover any period up to 20 years, but general practice is for most education officers to think at all times over a period of eight to ten years ahead, even though, from their committees' point of view and from the point of view of approved building programmes, they may seem to be working over a shorter span of years. Fortunately town and county planners in a local authority's service also work over a long period, and it is possible to obtain from them forecasts of population and town growth over a period of at least 15 years. With the aid of this information and birthrate statistics, reasonable approximations can be made for perhaps ten years ahead. Close contact must be kept with housing authorities to check developments, for while statistics affecting the whole of one area may be available, they are not detailed

enough to cover different districts within an area. Each education officer has long worked out the child product figures for his own area, either based upon the numbers per thousand population or upon what might be called the 'house child product' which may vary for different types of housing development. With these statistics and estimating the growth of population due to external factors, it is not difficult to arrive at reasonable approximations of the numbers of children who will require places in primary and secondary schools, either in the area as a whole or in parts of it.

Local policy decisions as to size of school and type of secondary education and reasonable travelling distances very largely control the size of the primary and secondary schools to be built, their location and type. Naturally the size of contributory area varies according to the age of pupil or student. This factor combined with the different sizes of institution, whether for school or further education, control the density of institutions 'on the ground'. Planning must also take account of the proposals of denominational bodies. Care must be taken in the primary and secondary field to see that the proposals for new schools by an LEA and by church authorities fit into a coordinated whole. Unless this is done, the erection or enlargement of church schools might result in some LEA schools not having enough children to fill them or vice versa.

Before individual projects can be started, considerable educational planning has to be done. Schools and colleges have to be planned not only to meet existing needs and existing methods of education, but have to be designed if possible to meet needs of all kinds in the next 20 or 30 years. It is only necessary to draw attention to the changes in curricula and teaching techniques which have taken place over the last 15 years to realise how important it is to keep flexibility in all aspects of the work. It is only too easy to build a school or college too small, to buy a site which is too restricted, and then for the authority to find itself in difficulties within a very short space of time. One of the planners' problems today is that educational thought is racing ahead of finance. Quite properly the Department of Education and Science has to keep some restriction on building costs, but there is little doubt at the present time that cost limits, particularly in some parts of the country, are limiting educational planning and are preventing some LEAs from building schools and colleges in a way which they consider essential to meet the present and future educational needs of the institutions concerned.

## Planning for F.E.

The planning and provision for special and further education is a little more complicated than the planning of schools. The requirements in these two spheres are more specialised and it becomes all the more necessary for an LEA to seek advice from its own specialists and from HM Inspectors concerned with this work. Except perhaps in the case of schools for educationally sub-normal children, it is more difficult to assess long-term and permanent needs in both special and further education; for unlike the schools which are built to meet the needs of a known population within the years of compulsory school attendance, the building of some special schools and of colleges of further education in themselves create a demand for more. Supply creates demand,

rather than the normal reverse process. It is obvious that a careful assessment of known requirements in both spheres is necessary, but it often happens that once a specialised institution is open, more children and students will require places than were considered necessary at first. Some special schools may well serve an area as large as that covered by a technical college.

It is amusing in areas which may now have very large colleges of technology to look back not much more than 40 years and read the views of some 'city fathers' as expressed when the idea of a local technical college was first suggested. Here, as in the case of some special schools, it is vital to obtain the views and co-operation of the neighbouring LEAs, for they may well draw their pupils and students from more than the area of one LEA. This becomes even more important as institutions get bigger.

It may be of interest to refer in some detail to the various steps which require planning in the provision of a particular school or college. Once the need for a particular institution is clear and accepted by the LEA, the next important step is to get it placed in a school of further education building programme by the DES. Normally the long-term programme of an authority will be well known to the Department and the case for a particular project will have been discussed with HMI and with the Department's officers in advance of it being submitted for a particular year's programme. Certain action cannot, however, be delayed while waiting for building programme approval. The general plan of the project must have been considered and steps taken to earmark a site for it. It is a fortunate authority which had a committee before the war which was concerned with the acquisition of sites, and there are cases of sites being in the possession of an authority for 20 or 30 years before schools have been built. As soon as a school is programmed, public notices have to be displayed for a period of two months to indicate the authority's intention not only to the local citizens but to neighbouring authorities and other providing bodies.

Having decided the date when a particular school is to be available, it is wise to work backwards in time, allowing a period for erection, for tendering and accepting a contract, for preparatory work required by the architect for going out to tender, for educational planning leading to the design of sketch plans, for planning approval, the publication of notices and the approval of the project by the committee and the DES. Having worked back in time to provide for all these steps, it is not unknown that the education officer finds that the process should have started at least a year ago!

It is in the preparation and design of sketch plans by the architect that the education office staff are particularly concerned. Long before plans are taken to managers, governors or committee for approval, the purpose and detailed function of a particular institution has to be quite clear, together with its size, its organisation and the special courses to be offered in it. With the increasing complexity of the premises which follows from the increased age of the pupil or student user, so the design becomes more complicated. The institution has to be planned as an educational whole before sketch plans are started; for educational considerations control the detailed layout of buildings, the type and arrangement of rooms, the provision and layout of specialist rooms and the provision of a wide range of facilities for

staff and students. All these have to be discussed in detail with the authority's architects, specialist advisers, medical officers, with HMI and, if possible, with the teachers who will use the building. If the building is a replacement project, then there is a team of teachers available for discussion; where it is a new project, it is valuable to consult other teachers and to have the headmaster or headmistress appointed at as early a date as possible. The patient and helpful cooperation offered by the Authority's architects is vital at this stage.

Sometimes one wishes that buildings need not be built in a permanent method of construction which has an estimated life of at least 60 or 70 years. All concerned with this work are aware of the changes which have taken place in the last 60 years and of the inconveniences forced upon teaching staff by having to work for so many years in buildings not designed for changing purposes.

The planning of furniture and equipment is also essential. Many authorities are expediting the work by participation in building and furniture consortia which help in the supply of materials of all kinds. It is the education officer's task to see that necessary approvals are obtained to schedules of furniture and equipment, and arrangements made in time for due delivery. One of the minor problems is that of ensuring that furniture and equipment is not delivered so far in advance that there is nowhere ready to receive it, and equally to see that it is delivered in time.

## Finding the Staff

Educational planning applies to people as well as to things, and staff of the right kind and of the right quantity have to be obtained and appointed so that they are available at the same time as the building, equipment and furniture. It is in the supply of teachers that an LEA is not its own master. This is a matter for national planning, and LEAs have to rely on the DES to see that adequate teaching staff are available and will be available in the future. Local planning is necessary in the provision of ancillary staff, clerical officers for the school office, laboratory and workshop technicians for the practical rooms, school meals staff for the school meals service, caretaking and cleaning and ground staff to keep the buildings and playing fields in good order. Last yet most important of all, plans have to be made to provide the staff and the building with pupils or students. This completes the full circle, for it is with the needs of the students that the necessity for planning begins. For new schools contributory districts have to be calculated so that some measure of control can be exercised upon the intake. Sometimes lengthy correspondence is necessary with neighbouring LEAs to decide the terms in which out-county pupils or students will be admitted. Frequently prior consultation is necessary with transport authorities to cope with large numbers of customers at particular times of the day. If the LEA happens to be a dormitory town with a large commuting population, the movement of children in the morning occurs at the same time as the movement of travellers to railway stations. This can present difficulty.

Finally, and returning to the more general aspects of planning, some particular mention might be made of planning problems associated with the reorganisation of secondary education. This particular exercise has been different in that it has been concerned not with the

building of new schools to meet the demands of an expanding community, but with the rearrangement of existing school facilities to meet the needs of one section of the school population grouped in a different way. It is also very much concerned with the redeployment of existing teaching staff. While this type of exercise was undertaken in education offices in the 1930s, there were at that time only two grades of staff in elementary schools—head teachers and assistants, and the school curricula were more straightforward. The problem of redeployment of staff is much more complicated at the moment because of the various grades of post occupied by assistant teachers. It has been necessary to assess all the educational resources of an authority's area, buildings, equipment and teaching force, in order to plan for a new type of organisation.

One of the more pleasant dreams of the education officer would be the planning of an educational system in a new area where the size and rate of growth of population were a known quantity and where population and industry were predetermined, but no-one ever imagines that such conditions could exist, for new towns and communities present their own special problems. The planning and provision of new facilities is taking place all the time and this task is not too difficult; but a much more difficult problem is presented by the need to replan facilities in the older parts of urban areas. Both the Newsom and Plowden Reports have shown how urgent this task is. Unless even more attention is paid to the replanning of older and out-of-date educational facilities, there will continue to exist two grades of educational provision—the new and the old. Existing, as these may do, in close proximity to each other, the danger is not that there will be two Britains distinct from each other on a geographical basis, but two Britains in every town and large conurbation. One does not need to look very far to see the dangers which two such nations can present.

## *Plowden—One Year Later*

*It is twelve months since the Plowden report on the primary schools was published—twelve months of debate and further experiment. The editors of* Trends in Education *would like to keep the educational themes of the report before their readers throughout 1968, and in particular to publish some critical assessment about how they work out at school level. Contributions are invited.*

# Integration or Specialisation?

L. J. BURROWS

The Plowden report has had a tonic effect in the primary world because of its unequivocal expression of confidence in the best practice of our primary schools. It also usefully brought together the findings of research on the physical, intellectual and emotional development of children, and it offered with them new challenges to the teaching profession. One of the most important questions implicit in the report is whether integrated studies or specialist studies (or discreetly judged blends of the two) offer the best way of advance for primary education. It must first be said that this debate should concern secondary schools and secondary teachers only slightly less than primary, and it is profoundly to be hoped that the Plowden report will increasingly receive study in secondary as well as primary circles. Much has happened of recent years to dispel the previously widespread ignorance in each about practices and attitudes in the other, and there is much in the report which should accelerate this process.

The Council, of course, came down heavily in favour of integrated study and of an inter-related curriculum, even if a superficial glance at the chapter headings in part five of the report seemed to indicate that the curriculum was considered subject by subject; a reading of chapter sixteen, 'Children Learning in School,' soon dispels this and a reading of the whole of this section, together with many passages elsewhere in the report, leaves no doubt in the mind of the reader that the committee considered the integrated approach to learning which they found in the best of our primary schools abundantly justified in its results. All who know such schools, and whose memories are long enough to compare them with the typical primary school of the past, will echo these conclusions approvingly. Yet the Council was bound to admit that at least one third of our schools are as yet nowhere near attaining the results of the best third and there are of course many where, for a variety of reasons, the subject approach (though rarely allied to specialist teaching) holds sway. It is equally true that many secondary school staffs either do not appreciate the philosophy underlying good primary school practice, or in their own organisation are unable to take account of it sufficiently to enable the child to make his transfer from primary to secondary school without bewilderment

or even shock. It is certainly true that educational psychologists, the staffs of institutes and colleges of education, and advisory bodies generally are heartily behind the Plowden conclusions that the integrated path to learning is the natural one for the child to follow, but is is plainly true that very many staffs either are unconvinced or have not found how to follow it The vanguard may be there; the main body is spread out over many stages of advance.

## Recognising the Dangers

Nor is the antithesis between integration and specialisation as clear cut as some people think. One may wholeheartedly subscribe to the value of the integrated approach to learning and yet recognise the pitfalls which beset it. Full of interest for the children as methods involving their personal activity and discovery are, it is only right to recognise the dangers. A poorly guided project may be superficial and diffuse, encouraging a butterfly attitude in the pupils who are leaping from one aspect to another and not dwelling in any depth upon any one. Roaming over a wide area of subject matter will not in itself ensure that children relate one part to another. Shrewd evaluation and skilful guidance by the teacher, coupled with adequate resources, are of course the safeguard; but they demand both personal resourcefulness and experience in large measure. Again, children's own interests are erratic, and to follow them as a guide to the next topic or allocation of work can, unless the teacher be both thoughtful and wary, lead to an education which, though stimulating, is out of balance. One recalls schools in which, for example, the quality of free writing was extraordinarily high in range, sensitivity and content, but in which no corresponding effort had been made in scientific or mathematical studies and in which in these fields the pupils' knowledge was rudimentary. Similarly, there exist schools in which outstanding progress and achievement in art or in movement veil a lack of adequate performance in the basic skills. Beyond a doubt it is better to have excellence in one or two fields rather than no excellence at all; the point however is that only the highly skilled and well informed teacher can over a period ensure that something like an even balance of progress is maintained. If this is not present, however exciting the techniques and however pleasing the school may be as a social community, the content of knowledge may be uneven or uncoordinated to an extent which handicaps the child in the next stage of his school life.

The whole question of what the content of education in the primary—or indeed any other—stage should be is of course a fundamental and a difficult one. All teachers would agree that it is the function of the school to nourish the intellect, the emotions, and the imagination, while training its pupils also in the art of living together happily and rewardingly. No one would wish to return to the rigid content embodied in some of the stringently factual subject syllabuses of the past; it is clear today that there is ample scope for selection from the vast body of knowledge which man has acquired and that each school is right to take into account its own particular circumstances in making its selection. One needs to look at the knowledge and skill which the child has gained over a longer rather than a shorter period, and teachers are of course right to follow the interest which is at

white heat and to match the content of what they do to the ability of the pupil at that given time. In the words of the report: 'until a child is ready to take a particular step forward, it is waste of time trying to teach him to take it.' Equally, when he is ready it is wise to take it without delay. That the child in his personal development benefits from the resultant and common disregard of subject barriers in the primary classroom there can be no doubt, but we should not neglect the possibility of casualties on the way. What, for instance, happens to the teaching of history, once one ceases to regard it as a body of knowledge adding up to a subject? Is it not important to acquire a time sense, or to know how our ancestors lived, or to sense through the study of history the march of progress and the disturbing and sometimes baffling problems which it throws up? Is the narrative content of history, which has done so much in the past to stir up the imagination of children and to increase their understanding of men and women, to be lost? There are certainly signs that this may be happening, where an overall view and record of what is covered is not maintained. What is true for history may equally apply to other aspects of the curriculum such as geography and religious education, while in mathematics the question arises whether there is not in fact a logical progression through mathematical ideas which needs to be observed, no matter what techniques may be employed to make these intelligible through personal discovery to the individual pupil.

The entry of new subjects to the primary school curriculum also raises the question whether a measure of specialist teaching and specialist approaches is not necessary. In the pilot scheme for the teaching of French in primary schools, sponsored by the DES and carried out by certain local education authorities in conjunction with the Schools Council and the Nuffield Foundation, an honourable and certainly not unsuccessful attempt is being made to combine the necessary specialist knowledge on the part of the teacher with the general integrated approach of the primary schools concerned, and therefore to relate French to many other aspects of the curriculum. The enthusiasm (often amounting to dedication) of many primary teachers for new approaches to mathematics is certainly in part due to the discovery that mathematics can be related to far more in children's experience and in other aspects of the curriculum than was ever contemplated in the mechanical syllabuses of the past. Many teachers are now similarly equipping themselves to make science a pervading force and not simply a specialist corner in the curriculum. These welcome developments, however, prompt the question whether any single teacher can hope to acquire the necessary knowledge and expertise in all aspects of the curriculum, and the pressure towards an increasing measure of specialisation will be difficult and may be unwise to resist. It is probably better to seek a harmony whereby the philosophy of integration is combined with the skills of specialisation —and this surely can only be attained by new patterns of staff qualification, deployment and co-operation.

Two further questions claim our attention in the debate about integration or specialisation, and both call for research. The first is at what point the study of a subject for its own sake and in its own right, without care or concern for its relationship to other subjects, may become worthy and rewarding. Every teacher in secondary schools knows the child who is seized with one consuming passion or interest,

who develops one aptitude which far outshines all others, who finds pleasure and satisfaction in one particular study and who desires increasingly to concentrate on this. The dedicated artist, the balletomane, the bookworm, the fossil hunter, the athlete, the musician, the pure mathematician—they are all of this company. It may be that only a minority of children develop in this way, but it is from their ranks that the leaders in particular arts, sciences and fields of learning will come. Would a teacher, for instance, have done society a service by holding Margot Fonteyn back from the ballet or John Ogdon from the piano? There are undoubtedly individuals whose special gifts need detecting and satisfying if their potential is to be fulfilled; there are also fields of knowledge the study of which for its own sake becomes at a certain stage proper and commendable. The importance of this in any consideration of the Plowden report is that the stages of development at which this may come about may well overlap the later primary and early secondary years—but on this we are not sufficiently informed. Linked with this question, as a subject on which further research is needed, is one which the Council did pose—namely whether there are critical periods in the development of individual children which it is important to identify and to act upon if their full potential is to be realised. It may be that much of the educational backwardness which is such a source of concern to the profession could be avoided if critical moments in a child's school life could be so identified; but for this we must wait upon research.

## Role of the Teachers

The second question concerns the role of teachers as a whole, and of the help which they have a right to expect as partners in a team. The schools which most successfully practise integration are those with the best leadership and the most sensitive and perceptive teachers. How are the less well-endowed teachers to meet the exacting demands of an integrated curriculum? As the trend moves steadily away from viewing the teacher's task as being simply to impart information towards the much more exacting one in which he is the architect who structures learning situations in his classroom and elsewhere, this question becomes of urgent importance. Imagination and anticipation are priceless qualities in a teacher, but not all are equally gifted in their possession of them. It is surely for those who are to place their wisdom and knowledge at the disposal of their colleagues, and it is equally for those whose talents are of a different nature to accept what their more experienced or more imaginative friends can offer them. Partnership must replace personal pride. The role of the head teacher is of paramount importance, and to him or her these qualities are among the most vital in leading a school today. The concept of a staff working in partnership (whether or not one accepts the term 'team teaching'), of complementing each other's skills and efforts, and of structuring learning situations jointly as well as alone, is one which must become more widely and readily accepted and practised. It is the sum total of the abilities and qualities of a staff which needs to be harnessed for the benefit of the pupils within the school, and in large and medium primary schools at any rate one might hope that every aspect of learning would be served by some member of the staff having special knowledge. Perhaps 'co-operation' is the word which may come

to unite both integration and specialisation. What is abundantly clear is that this debate concerns primary and secondary schools alike and that it will be to the benefit of all parties, adults and children, for both to make common cause in discussion and in exchange of experience. The Plowden report has paid to primary education a well deserved tribute and is having a tonic effect; it must also be a spur to further advance.

# Miss, You Haven't Been to Our House Yet!

MARTYN CLÉMANS

A considerable body of opinion now supports the view that contact between school and home should be increased. The Plowden council underlined the difficulties involved, when it wrote: 'However many and pressing the invitations from school, some parents will not respond, and amongst them will be those whose children need help most.'
Whilst there is a high degree of agreement about the desirability of such contact, there is much less than unanimity about how to bring it about, and often hazy ideas about what the school is really trying to achieve in this field.

Most educationalists who see the Education Welfare Service forming this link still tend to think in narrow terms of school attendance, and those LEAs which have experimented with the idea of attaching an EWO to individual schools in deprived areas have achieved considerable success, as far as attendance goes.

*The Guardian* (April 17, 1967) reported Mr A. Millington, divisional officer of Manchester's schools welfare department, as saying that by attaching a full-time social worker to a Manchester secondary school with one of the highest delinquency rates in the city for an experimental period of three months, the truancy rate was cut by half and the number of children before the juvenile court reduced from fifteen to none. School attendance and juvenile delinquency are obviously important areas of interest sociologically; but many people are much more concerned not about getting the child back into school, but with finding out why he does not want to be there. Forcing the child to go back to school often only makes his problems worse. To be successful the school must offer something which, to the pupil, is of obvious immediate value.

## Home Liaison Officer

Often too there are hidden losses behind this kind of attendance gain. In many manual working-class families children have to be absented

from school to cope with minor domestic crises that in higher income families are handled by the wife or the *au pair*. Very often a successful attendance campaign in one school does no more than lead to a drop in attendance at others around—younger (or elder) brothers or sisters are substituting domestic help.

To those people who feel that attendance is not the whole—or indeed even a very important part—of the answer, the home visiting role of the teacher has great appeal, and there is no disputing that it would be valuable to teachers if they gained more insight into the background and attitudes of the children they teach.

In very few schools in Britain do teachers undertake home visiting on a regular basis. Reasons for this are not far to seek: there is opposition to this in principle in many quarters; available time is short; training in social work techniques lacking (there is now a course at the Edge Hill College of Education, Lancashire but graduates of this are limited in number and are all young, inexperienced teachers): few teachers are confident in dealing with parents; there is often a lack of interest or even opposition from head teachers.

One school where home visiting—not just of non-attenders but of all children—has been part of the pastoral role for some time is at the John Pounds Secondary Modern School for Girls in Portsmouth. There the LEA, at the request of the headmistress, Miss Bray, agreed to appoint a teacher to act as home visitor as well as to do a limited amount of regular teaching. In November, 1963, a former housecraft teacher was appointed to this position. Miss Bray says that the idea had gradually formed in her mind from the moment she took over as head, but was precipitated by attendance at a Council of Europe Seminar, at which the subject of home-school links was discussed.

The home liaison officer (she hates to be called that) at John Pounds is Mrs Joan Clark. Mrs Clark is the mother of three daughters, who, before she was appointed, had some experience of social work, although she has no university training in sociology. She also had experience in teaching although she is not a trained teacher. In spite of this, she was selected from among nearly seventy applicants.

The reasons she was selected become obvious from even a brief time spent in her company. When asked what she thought were the important attributes for someone doing the job of home visiting, she listed: willingness to accept people as they are; ability to act a part —to be all things to all people; a sense of humour; maturity—both of age and of outlook; and being a Mother, not a Miss. She appears to be worldly wise; to know what the score is and to have accepted it, and one gets the feeling that nothing shocks her. Mrs Clark acknowledges a narrow, Methodist upbringing where you signed the pledge early, and an oath had to do with honesty, not profanity. She can tell all the usual social-worker horror stories of filth, sexual immorality and desperation, for her school is in a socially very deprived area, with many children from broken homes and a good deal of real poverty. Sixty-four per cent of the girls who stay to school lunch are entitled to free meals; the average IQ in the school is only 86, with some children below 70 and only two or three above 105.

There is no streaming in the school, and this seems to be a stimulus to

individual effort by girls and staff. In the fourth year grouping is fluid and offers opportunities for girls to prepare for 'extended courses' at this and other schools. All learn something of child care.

There are four fifth-year forms, and about 80 per cent of pupils remain for at least two terms of a fifth year. One form is for less able girls to whom school now has attractions. One is for CSE candidates mainly, and it attracts a few pupils from other schools. The 1966 achievements were very gratifying. A third, the housecraft fifth is the chief means of entry to the NNEB Course. It, and the catering fifth, have a high proportion of direct entrants from other schools, and some travel from considerable distances. Some of the instruction in catering is given at Highbury Technical College, to which all members of the course later proceed.

All fifth and sixth form girls spend a substantial part of their time outside school, at the college, at play centres, nurseries or infants' schools, helping with meals-on-wheels, at the old people's home or in a hospital canteen. Thus anyone over 15 years old has genuine opportunity to be a responsible adult, away from the classroom.

There are various clubs and societies, including a youth club run jointly with the adjoining boys' school.

There is considerable stress on religious instruction and on the idea of service to others. Modern dance is also strongly developed. There is a remarkably fine musical tradition and the school brass band has many outside engagements at professional standard.

## Pattern of Duties

In the four years that she has been at the school Mrs Clark has established a pattern of duties which includes visiting the home of every child at least once during the school year—three hundred and twenty-five visits at the very least! In addition she teaches two full days a week in school. In July and September she goes to the homes of new entrants, welcoming each child to the school, explaining what it is hoped might be achieved and discovering if there are any problems. She attempts to find out what the parents' attitude is to the school and tells them what is hoped for from their child and what the school hopes to do for her. From October to March it is the turn of parents of the third- and fourth-year girls. The parents of the third-year girls are told about extended courses and other opportunities available to their daughters. With the fourth-year parents she discusses whether their daughter will stay on for a fifth year or leave as soon as she is able to—in these cases Mrs Clark keeps close liaison with the careers mistress.

From March to June she visits second-year parents, and carries out any revisits that she, the head, or deputy head, or any other teacher thinks useful. Not all home visits are in the evening, but many are and the number varies between one and four. Mrs Clark tries to keep two evenings a week free for this, and never goes to a family she doesn't know after 9.30 at night. She keeps a close eye on TV programmes and is now expert on working class taste in viewing, and also in many other things from food and drink to household management—grist for the mill of every social worker. One of the things that surprised her, she said, is the part superstition still plays in the lives of many people.

Some families with children in the school still believe, for instance, that if a girl's ear lobes are not pierced she will become deaf!

Before she visits each home, Mrs Clark makes sure she knows how the girl has been behaving and what standard of work she is producing. She makes a point of not visiting in order to complain, but very tactfully discusses what seems politic at the time. She has always to be aware that she must make a positive approach and not create trouble between child and parent. Every visit is recorded and a confidential report prepared, in those cases where such a report appears necessary. This file is kept in the head mistress's room. The necessary information about a particular child's background is available to all the staff. In practice, details are rarely needed. When a member of the staff is finding a child difficult she aks Mrs Clark for help and advice. It is usually sufficient to explain that the child's home is an unhappy one—temporarily, or perhaps permanently—and that the girl needs sympathetic handling. Or perhaps the child is indulged at home and requires the opposite kind of treatment; but it is important that each situation is judged on merit.

In addition to routine visiting, Mrs Clark helps the Portsmouth Child Guidance Department. She makes it her duty to notice which children all the staff seem concerned about. She revisits the home, and if the child's mother also finds the child difficult or withdrawn, she suggests calling in help. She then prepares all the information at her disposal from school and home to assist the educational psychologist, and after the child has been tested, does social work in the home under the psychologist's direction.

The work that Mrs Clark does in the homes of pupils of John Pounds School is varied. She may have to deal with really interested parents, and explain the school's education philosophy. In another home she may have to separate quarrelling parents, in another to try to rouse interest in parents too shy to show any. In yet another, announce that unless an effort is made to get Jenny to school there will be real trouble—not from her but another source. She works closely with the Children's Department, the Health Department and also the Probation Office, and gets advanced warning about any girl thought to be courting trouble.

## Shy Parents

The presence of a home liaison officer in the school has done nothing to increase attendance at parents meetings as Miss Bray originally thought would be the case. This appears to be because most parents would rather stay at home and wait for a teacher to come to them. Parents have said that they find it valuable to be able to have one teacher to themselves to cross-question her about the school, *with no one else to overhear what questions they ask*. Mrs Clark in turn encourages parents to go to see the headmistress, and many more parents do now feel less shy about coming into school.

Miss Bray feels that the liaison officer appointment has been an outstanding success. 'The staff now wonder how we ever ran the school before she came here'. she said. 'There is a more relaxed atmosphere in the school now because there are fewer tensions and improved attitudes on the part of the children. We have fewer children

before the courts than we used to, in fact attendance at court is a rare occurrence and the angry parent storming into my office is a rarity. The academic achievement of the children has improved because they have much more backing from the home. I myself feel that any school in the kind of area we are in cannot afford to be without such a member of staff.' It is an important factor that the parents are so pleased to be visited by a teacher, that they are learning to see the members of the teaching profession in a new light, as people who are really concerned about every aspect of their children's well-being.

Mrs Clark is an individual person, but by no means unique. There are plenty of other teachers—men as well as women—qualified by personality and character to do work of this kind. There is evidence that this work needs to be done, and that, as schools grow bigger and it becomes increasingly difficult for head teachers to know all the children, that they should have someone qualified to aid them with problems other than academic. It is important to re-emphasise that Mrs Clark's role is not limited to visiting the home of difficult children, or of children in any kind of trouble. She goes to *all* the homes—some more than others it's true—but nevertheless all. In this way her role differs from that of any of the social services. Children from the school whose homes she has not yet visited sometimes become worried, not that they have been singled out for special attention for some reason, but that they have been omitted. 'Miss, you haven't been to our house yet!'

*'Nothing is sacred in the field of business studies. We must be prepared to abandon all our preconceived notions, question all our cherished assumptions and look afresh at our established ways.'*

# The Future of Business Studies*

E. I. BAKER

Over the past few years the number of students engaged in business studies in technical colleges has grown rapidly. Ten years ago only a handful of candidates presented themselves for the national certificate in commerce—as it was then called; in fact, the number presenting themselves for examination at the HNC level for years did not reach double figures. Today there must be over 25,000 students on national certificate or diploma courses. Another fact is that at the time of the publication of the Crick Report in 1963, it was thought that perhaps the number of students reading for a degree level examination in business studies in colleges might, one day, reach a hundred. Today there are over 700 students on CNAA courses in business studies and next year the number will certainly exceed a thousand. Any college offering a CNAA course in business studies can expect to receive six applicants for every place available.

Until recent years, courses were concentrated in the evening. Today, full-time, sandwich, block release and part-time day courses, to say nothing of a bewildering range of short courses are to be found in all the major centres. It is evident that business education has arrived. The question is—will the growth continue?

Now although all predictions tend to be wrong and numerical predictions absolutely wrong, it may be useful to see what evolutionary changes are almost inevitable. It is, after all, the mark of man to foresee and to forestall. We may be wrong in some details, but we should be able to discern trends, however darkly.

What are these trends? The first is towards greater growth. All things seem to conspire together to ensure a continuing upward turn in the importance of business studies in further education. It is a well known phenomenon that as a country becomes more sophisticated the number of those engaged in agriculture tends to fall as those in the manufacturing industries tend to rise. It is equally true that at a further stage of development, the more advanced the economy, the more pronounced is in turn the swing away from the manufacturing sector to the service sector. Today only about five per cent of the nation's labour force is engaged on agriculture and the number is still declining. The number engaged in the service industries—which of course includes all those in business and administration—is rising continuously. As automation takes over we may expect a steady decline in the number engaged in manufacturing and a further rise in the third sector.

*This article does not deal with the business schools or advanced management education.—Ed.

The trend will influence the nature and scope of subjects we shall have to teach. Twenty years ago there were very few sociologists in British universities; today, they are numerous, and confident. Whether the subject itself has yet assumed an agreed shape is open to some doubt —it would seem to be waiting for a Keynes—but that it is spreading and will continue to spread as a recognised discipline in business studies courses cannot be doubted. Already one college has included it at ONC level in its scheme. Many others will soon follow the lead.

It is a sign of the trend that the Joint Committee for Business Studies is to assume responsibility for an ONC in public administration. The overlap between business studies and public administration is too great to justify a separate joint committee.

## Language Teaching

Another consequence of technological progress is that communications are now instantaneous and world wide. The truism that the world is shrinking has serious educational implications which would require many articles to explore. Consider languages. English is, fortunately for us, a world language, but not all Frenchmen, for example, are fired with enthusiasm to use English. A young British student in business would do well to perfect his French, German and then Russian, Spanish or Italian. Some progress has been made in the practical techniques of teaching languages and we may expect research to lighten the task still further, but nothing can replace the sweat of learning. Already we are beginning to send our young business studies students in embarrassingly large numbers—embarrassing because of the difficulty of finding suitable placements—to Europe. This trend will be accentuated a hundredfold over the next ten years. Meanwhile a herculean job remains to be done to raise the standard of teaching languages in this country from its average level up to that of the best practitioners. The gap is still depressingly wide, and when visiting some evening classes one can only feel sympathy for those students whose task is so hopelessly organised, and who remind one of lost souls condemned to push wooden ploughs through the Sahara without compass or, indeed, a definable goal. The establishment of clear precise objectives to be reached by clearly defined means is essential in any skill subject.

Another problem in all language teaching, once the elements have been mastered, is to know what the content of the language courses should be. Mere verbal juggling tends rapidly to become boring. A serious study, using the language, of the economic, geographical, historical, political and social problems of the country itself would seem to be essential. The difficulty is to find teachers of modern languages who know anything beyond literary texts. Nevertheless, there are some quite outstanding and brilliant exponents in the field.

The introduction of computers and the coming of automation into offices is causing a ferment in all business studies departments. There is currently an enormous interest in business data processing following the announcement of the Royal Society of Arts' computer appreciation courses and the Royal Society of Arts' computer operators' courses in which many colleges are already taking part. We may expect to see other courses—courses for managers for example—to follow shortly on the heels of these new developments. There were eight colleges

running six-week courses for trainee systems analysts last session and in the 1967-68 session twenty-two colleges will be offering these courses. Teacher-training courses for system analysts are flourishing, and it is encouraging to note the assistance given by industrialists and top consultants on these courses.

Many HND courses now have data processing as a two-year subject. Nationally, all computer courses in the business studies field are heavily over-subscribed. The problem of the immediate future is how to meet the demand.

The implications of developments in automation on the business and office situation have so far barely been appreciated. Teaching at advanced levels is going to be an exacting task requiring a mastery of dynamic concepts in business thinking and in the evaluation of new market situations. To enable teachers to keep abreast of new knowledge, refresher courses on a scale undreamt of in the past, will be essential.

## The Polytechnics

Business studies departments in polytechnics will carry a heavy responsibility in the future. They are charged with the task of pioneering both new courses and new teaching methods, although it is unlikely that all good ideas will emanate from the polytechnics alone. There are fortunately too many restless and thrusting teachers outside the polytechnics for this to happen, but we shall nevertheless look more and more to these establishments for a lead. Once the polytechnics have set course into the mists of the future we may expect to see profound changes in the whole structure of business courses as we know them today. The CNAA will exert—indeed has already exerted —a significant influence over the thinking of teachers in the polytechnics. In the past the attitude of the majority of teachers has been one of 'tell us what you want and we will provide it'. Today they are asked to think out their own courses in their own way, and to justify their thinking before a visiting panel of experts from the CNAA committee. These experts do not necessarily wish to agree with what they find, but they do expect to discover a logically argued and convincingly presented case by those who will do the teaching. Coherence, high academic standards and clear objectives are demanded. Mere imitation of professional bodies' syllabuses receives scant respect and short shrift. All this is salutary for the colleges and not least for those in charge of them, for they are beginning to appreciate that unless *all* members of the teaching staff are actively engaged in the task of writing the syllabuses and planning the courses there is small hope of satisfying the CNAA inquisitors who will conduct the investigation and interrogation. Academic boards are a *sine qua non* of all polytechnics and might soon become so in many other technical colleges.

Once, however, the accolade of the CNAA has been bestowed, the polytechnics are free to pilot their own courses in their own way. Now freedom is a heady wine, and it is unlikely that teachers responsible for their own courses will be long content to be subservient to other men's direction. Thus it would seem inevitable that HND and HNC in business studies will soon become the sole responsibility of the colleges assisted by associated external examiners. As for the professional bodies, their co-operation has never been closer or more cordial.

Already, for example, those colleges charged with the task of conducting one year full-time courses for young articled clerks in accountancy devise their own internal examinations which exempt from the intermediate examination of the Institute of Chartered Accountants. A few years ago this would have been an unthinkable arrangement. Already candidates at ONC are given subject for subject exemption from the intermediate examination of all the major bodies. The HNC or HND is used by some bodies for their own technicians' final qualification. Exactly what arrangements will follow this trend, it would be rash to prophesy as delicate negotiations will be needed to iron out difficulties and reassure the professional associations, but that colleges will play an ever increasingly important role in determining what is taught and how it is taught there can be no doubt at all.

The greater the degree of freedom given to teachers, the greater their responsibility to see that what they teach is relevant and up-to-date. The occupational disease of teaching is routine: teachers tend to become more and more expert at doing what is less and less worth doing. Doing the right thing rather than doing the wrong thing right is what matters. Clearly no one can go on teaching in a business studies department of a polytechnic (or of any other college for that matter) without pretty intimate contact with the world of affairs. The dictum 'those who can do, those who can't teach' will no longer be true, we hope. The future teaching profession must spend a good portion of its time on consultancy work in industry and commerce. It may be that a higher proportion of people will have divided loyalties. A change in our rigid pension schemes may be unthinkable, yet inevitable, if we are to attract the right men. As for all good things, there is a price to pay and a danger to be foreseen. The danger is that consultants may tend to neglect the legitimate demands of their students, who can be tiresome and time consuming nuisances to a busy expert engaged on higher things that pay well.

## The Industrial Training Act

The impact of the Industrial Training Act on the future of business studies will be profound. One immediate influence is to cause colleges to become much more conscious than they have been in the past of the concepts of job analysis and skill analysis. We may expect to see some drastic changes in, for example, the teaching of the office skills. For too long we have been content to train girls, many of them ill-equipped for the task, as shorthand-typists. The results have been unfortunate both for the employers and for the girls themselves. In future, selection procedures and the specific training of girls for specific jobs should eliminate much of this wasted effort. The insistence of tough training officers that objectives must be precisely defined and a rigorous analysis made of the skills can only have a salutary effect on teaching as a whole. Vagueness of aim renders much teaching ineffective or, more plainly, downright bad.

The six pilot courses on basic training in clerical skills, which are currently under review, have already taught us much about training juniors for office work. We may expect more training courses to follow. Provided employers do not overlook the importance of education as well as training and provided young people are given an opportunity to carry on from their basic training course to complete

the full course—whether by part-time day or by block release—leading to the certificate of office studies, the introduction of training for the office will be a useful experience for the teachers. Like their colleagues in the polytechnics we must expect them to remain in the closest touch with industrial and commercial requirements and to be sensitive to the need to change.

It may be relevant at this point to ask what influence the Act is going to have on the teaching of commerce in schools and to ask next what are likely to be the relations between schools and further education establishments. These are large questions and space alone restricts the treatment they deserve.

On the first question it may be confidently assumed, that schools will be expected to develop further the teaching of commerce and the office skills as a contribution to general education and not as vocational subjects. It will be the responsibility of the Industrial Training Boards and not that of schools to provide skill training for the office. We may mercifully see, therefore, a diminution of the vocational teaching of the skill subjects by untrained teachers to unsuitable pupils in secondary schools.

The relationship between schools and technical colleges often leaves a good deal to be desired. Administrators and head teachers alike show a strange ignorance in the further education field. Co-operation, even competition, between the two complementary halves is desirable rather than the strange kind of apartheid that seems to exist in some areas. Probably the best arrangement where practicable would be to preserve freedom of choice for the pupils: those who wish to stay at school to take commercial courses should be free to do so; but equally those who wish to leave school to transfer to a technical college to take a full-time course should be equally free to do so. A degree of choice is surely desirable; perhaps a measure of competition would be no bad thing, although we can no longer tolerate the expense of small isolated classes. Human beings are infinitely varied, and it would be a bold man who would say that a monopolistic system is bad for business but good for education. The major problem facing the schools, if they are seriously to enter the field of business studies, will be to find teachers with the right experience.

## The Rate of Change

With greater numbers to teach, with a rapid obsolescence of knowledge and the need for constant mental adjustment, and with a limited and expensive teaching force it is clear that much attention will have to be given to new teaching methods and the use of educational technology. The principal aim of teachers of business studies must be to equip their students to learn how to learn. Far more attention must be paid to effective methods of study, efficient reading, uses of sources of information and methods of self organisation. The aim of the teacher will be to fade more and more into the background as the course proceeds. As the course advances so should the total study time for private study be increased. External aids must be enlisted: radio and television—which, we can confidently hope, will soon be video taped inexpensively—will be of immense help. Closed circuit television, programmed learning, team teaching, and last but by no means least, private directed study with correspondence are all methods in current use. We are likely to hear a great deal more of them in the future.

Every student should be helped towards becoming an independent, self-generating person, responding to a range of aids among the most important of which will still be the printed word.

One method of encouraging independence will be to make greater use of the extended essay and project method not only as a teaching instrument but also as an examination/assessment technique. Obviously, teaching and continuous assessment must go hand in hand. It is hard to see how anyone can teach effectively without a sensitive feed-back mechanism, but formal examinations are a clumsy device and it is the teacher, more than the student, who profits from assessment. Weighing a starving man may help the doctor, but it will put no flesh on the dying patient. All too often testing is confused with teaching.

Simulation along the lines of business games should find a place in the examination paper: legal, economic, accounting knowledge could be displayed in one paper with a properly drawn problem. All these form part of general business acumen: an appreciation of business finance is not separate from legal knowledge in a real business problem. Nor is it necessary to obtain precise information from the examinee in such matters: access to documentary material should be allowed.

Just as we may expect to see aims, methods and assessment subjected to ruthless scrutiny in the future so may we hope that all subject matter, and the assumptions on which it is based will be critically challenged. A recent report on accounting for the non-accountant draws attention to the need to distinguish between the teaching of accounting to the future professional accountant, and the teaching of the same subject to the future users of accounts. Since they have different needs and skills, it is argued that the whole approach should be different. However that problem is solved—and the solution may be found to be trickier than we think—it is at least agreed that all students should fully grasp the reality that lies behind the figures and no longer be content—as too many have been in the past—to acquire mere technical skill in their manipulation.

What is needed is a breaking down of barriers. Law, accounts and economics are not separate disciplines in a business studies context. We sometimes put subjects in a course without real job analysis. For example, why law? Is it to be regarded as a general education or is it to equip the future businessman to deal with specific problems?

Another subject that is rapidly coming to the fore is statistics and mathematics. One has only to say that we need much more teaching of mathematics to receive general consent; and, of course, the statement is true enough. Yet the level and content of mathematics needs to be kept under close scrutiny. Mathematicians make good citizens and kind parents, but they can be dangerous allies. Their enthusiasm needs to be checked, for once the subject is formally introduced there is a tendency to teach mathematical knowledge for its own sake. Most business problems are soluble, provided they are approached in a strictly logical and analytical way, with techniques that rarely go beyond 'A' level mathematics.

So we conclude that nothing is sacred in the field of business studies. We must be prepared to abandon all our preconceived notions, question all our cherished assumptions and look afresh at our established ways. The only constant factor is the student himself. He will always need the affection, respect and support of those who teach him.

*What have the 'New Schools' contributed to the general educational pattern in this country? What have they stood for? What have they achieved?*

# The 'New School' and its Influence Today

R. A. WAKE

J. H. Badley died on March 6, 1967, aged 102. If a rebel lives long enough, he may finish a life peer, a companion of honour, or a cardinal; if he lives too long, he may almost be forgotten. Badley ran the risk of being almost forgotten except by loyal Bedalians. He was a shy, reserved, withdrawn man whose hands were rarely quiet. He lived austerely; conversation with him could be difficult, certainly unless one almost had an agenda privately in mind: small talk was impossible for him. In his clothes he remained something of the 'Fabian progressive' of the 1890s. He was an earnest, highly intelligent man from a well-to-do Victorian background, who had sought, as a young man coming down from Cambridge, a purpose to which to give his life. That purpose became Bedales. He was swept up into the vision of what a school society could be like—almost a new heaven and a new earth—by Dr Reddie, the founder of Abbotsholme, the 'New School'. From Reddie he learnt 'what to do and how not to do it'. He opened his own school in 1893, and made it co-educational six years later. By temperament and conviction he was happy to let the school evolve within the general framework he created.

It is certainly not the purpose here to describe or analyse the evolutionary development of Bedales, but only to make one or two observations. It evolved as a community of human beings of both sexes, with an age group of 7+ to 60+ (there is also a preparatory school now). In this community there has always been a wide diversity of talent and experience. It has never been taken for granted that wisdom necessarily comes with age; the community educates all its members. It is, in a sense, a family community, and in this sense is an informal one—it would be as unnatural to forbid children to call staff by their Christian names as it would be to order them to. Bedales has been associated with co-education almost to the exclusion of all else in many people's minds, but in fact Badley regarded this as the completion of the pattern, and not the purpose of it. An elected school council, representing school and staff, was introduced in 1913. In form and effectiveness it varied over the years; at its best, serious discussion could take place in it on every aspect of school life except health and finance, and could lead to resolutions to the headmaster—and he, having been present at and involved in the discussions, could usually accept these without difficulty. More recently, the formalities of this council have been replaced by regular but informal meetings in the headmaster's house, which anyone can attend. In such a community corporal punishment would be ludicrous, and was abandoned a long time ago. It seems a successful community, and its chief success lies

in having evolved ways of helping young people through adolescence often to a remarkably balanced and mature young adulthood, whether their future be academic or otherwise. The method is to put them into a kindly environment, to offer a wide range of facilities, to be there to help and guide when necessary, and for the rest, *to leave them alone.*

Bedales is *not* unique. There are other schools with the same aims and similar schools have often been called 'progressive'. This is a term surrounding countryside, in its magnificent library, in the general range of equipment and facilities, in its staff/pupil ratio. Bedales and similar schools have often been called 'progressive'. This is a term that dates, but it is difficult to find an acceptable description. The founder of Abbotsholme called it 'the new school', and all the schools founded on its lines came to be regarded as being in the 'new school' movement; perhaps this is still not a bad description of a phase in educational history that ranges from Abbotsholme to Gordonstoun, from Bedales to Wennington, from Dartington to Summerhill, and includes somewhere along the line Clayesmore, St Christopher, Bryanston, Monkton Wyld, Atlantic College (now co-educational) and many schools on the continent and in the USA; this movement has also greatly influenced the Quaker schools.[1]

## What Have They Achieved?

All independent schools are now defending their privileged independence, and it is worth asking what the 'new schools' have contributed to the general educational pattern in this country; what have they stood for, what have they achieved, how far is their achievement, their experience, their educational method and outlook of use and value to the national system?

First of all, they are dedicated to a purpose, indeed to an ideal. I am well aware that many other schools have been dedicated to a purpose —many of the other independent schools have been founded to achieve religious purposes—and most schools in the voluntary aided system exist for similar reasons. Perhaps it is best to say something first about what I regard as a failure, by and large, in the 'new school' movement: the failure to think carefully and systematically about forms and content in religious education. Liberal education has often meant liberal theology, or none at all. There has tended to be more hesitancy, more unsureness in working out a policy in this than in any other field. Some of these schools have been avowedly humanist—rationalist was the older word used by them. Reddie and Badley certainly knew where they stood, but Reddie's idiosyncratic blend of Christ, Plato, Blake and Ruskin, heavily spiced with symbolism, was too personal to him to be perpetuated; Badley's determination to get at the spirit of religion whilst treating all forms as no more than incidental is a sophisticated and adult concept which produced forms of worship altogether too dependent on the personality of those conducting them. The question of what to do about religious education has still not been faced fully in this pattern of schools.

The characteristics that have been common to all the 'new schools' have been

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[1]Professor Campbell Stewart of Keele University is about to publish what may well be the definitive history of this movement.

(1) dedication to an ideal;
(2) a sense of community produced by staff/pupil relationships that bring with them democracy, equality, mutual respect and tolerance, humane attitudes both within the community and towards those outside, and
(3) the acceptance that the school can be a place of educational thinking, of experimenting even of pioneering, and that the development of the 'whole man' is not a pious phrase but rather an achievable reality. Badley urged that we 'learn by living, live by learning'; his motto was 'work of all for weal of all'.

It is necessary to confine the rest of this article to secondary education. The battle to achieve correspondence between educational thinking and educational practice has been substantially won in the primary field—which is certainly no better equipped than the secondary field. There tends to be a sort of Wordsworthianism in education: the further from infants' schools one gets, the further from heaven. In my experience, few secondary schools in the general national system have the same sense of community of family and of purpose as exists in schools such as Bedales. Staff *is* separate from school, headmaster/mistress *is* separate from staff. Patterns, decisions are made by headteachers; schools are much nearer to being autocracies than to being democracies. Regular meetings of the staff to discuss real educational problems or developments—meetings that are an integral part of school life and policy—are a rarity. Many schools have no full staff meetings at all, or only formal confirmatory ones; teachers, let alone pupils, have little or no sense of incorporation into the community. The division between staff and pupils is clearly defined indeed, buttressed by school rules, or the demand for a quite artificial dignity; perfectly ordinary and sensible men and women accept their incorporation into these unreal situations. Good organisation, smooth running, common acceptance of certain outlooks and standards (at any rate within the school precincts), these are found frequently enough, but not the school as an informal, family community.

An important factor in this is the hierarchical structure of most schools. A second important factor, in boys' schools and in many mixed schools, is corporal punishment. I have never seen and cannot see why, in one section only of the national community, is one group allowed to hit another. Only the complete forbidding of this kind of punishment will suffice. There is far more corporal punishment given than I ever realised before joining the Inspectorate; it tends to be given irrationally; and there are independent schools where it is administered by boys to boys. By what right does someone hit someone else? '*In loco Parentis?*' but do parents formally and with due ceremony beat their children in everyday life—or allow elder children to beat younger ones? *When* corporal punishment is generally forbidden, teachers will then have to find other ways of running schools, and so align themselves with the general community of teachers all over the world.

A third important factor is that so many of our secondary schools are still places of instruction: one goes to school in order to be told or shown, not in order to find out, under guidance, for oneself. Badley, like Reddie, urged that the school should be an 'educational laboratory'. It would certainly not be true to suggest that the 'new schools' at all times and in all aspects have been this; but the in-built philo-

sophy of the places has given every encouragement to teachers to explore new approaches in content and method. The chief preoccupation of too many of our secondary schools is success at 'O' and 'A'; the long roll call is so often read out of those who have got 'O' level in 8, 9, 10 subjects—but for what purpose does anyone need more than 6 or 7? Governors commend teachers on this kind of success, and ask questions if they did not do as well as last year; headteachers have been known to keep public graphs of results. The effects of these approaches on teaching are obvious and predictable. Thus having stifled curiousity and enquiry and creative thinking (which were marvellously kindled in many primary schools) a desperate attempt is made to revive them in the sixth form—though obviously a large number never enter the sixth form; in recent years the attention given to general studies indicated the anxieties felt in this field, but by this time it is often very hard work indeed to persuade the sixth formers concerned of the relevance and usefulness of such studies. I am well aware of the social pressures on schools; but is it not part of a definition of a 'profession' to have standards and ideals, and to guard and develop them in face of such pressures?

## A Kindly Place

I believe, then, that the school should be a kindly place, a community not a hierarchical state, a place in which all, including the headteacher, do unto all others as they would be done by; a place that, in spite of the pressures from the world it lives in and derives from is a place of discovery, of 'do it yourself' and 'think for yourself', anywhere, not only in the sixth form, you can be left *alone* once in a while, where the things *required* of you are kept to a minimum, and in which there is a little time for everyone to stand and stare—and if need be, do nothing. I think I should also have to state that Badley built Bedales on the idea that aesthetic education is as important as academic and physical education, and that this is a battle very far from being generally won —look at the timetable allocation for art, craft and music in any secondary, especially grammar, school, and look again at the points along the line at which these can be dropped, especially by the more able. I know of schools where only the least able enjoy the aesthetic satisfaction of learning to use hand and eye.

The influence of experimental schools on the programmes and practices of schools as a whole is difficult to measure; perhaps it has not been very extensive. The national secondary system far more often meets the demands placed on it by general opinion than puts into practice its own genuinely held and well thought out philosophies. Young teachers too often become cynical or defeatist or careerist; I have a great deal of evidence on this, from the questions asked by students in teacher training colleges who are somewhat bewildered by encounters in staff rooms whilst on teaching practice, to the weary remarks of hardened teachers at courses and conferences. One headmaster asked, in my hearing, what, in all honesty could a grammar school be expected to do about 'creativity'. 'We could destroy it—we usually do,' replied another. A very distinguished scientist in industry said to me recently that, after he had appointed into his research teams young men of the highest distinction, it took from two months to a year to get them to use creative imagination *in their work* again.

Many individual teachers, many departments in schools are dedicated to sympathetic and humane education; but the point remains valid that few schools in the national system are dedicated to educational propositions in the sense that Reddie's Abbotholme, or Badley's Bedales, or Hahn's Gordonstoun were. The question must be posed, of course, as to how far they ever could be; have they got to be essentially impersonal institutions, gaining their stature only from the transitory tenure of a particular headteacher? Professor Frank Smith said a long time ago that the history of education in this country is almost entirely and inescapably the history of headteachers.

## What is a Christian School?

The voluntary aided system by its very nature is intended to mean that schools *are* dedicated to themes and purposes transcending this, and it is most encouraging to observe how (perhaps somewhat late in the day) the questions are being asked: what is a Christian school, what should it be like, and how far is the aim being realised, and what factors help and what hinder. For example, the educational implications of moving from 'religious instruction' to 'religious education' are being carefully and thoughtfully worked out in many dioceses and schools; the system of religious inspection is being overhauled, the work of the inspectors is being redefined, and Roman Catholic schools are being linked to catechetical centres in new and challenging ways. Such catechetical centres foreshadow, and in some cases antedate, the setting up of teachers' centres. Teachers' centres, over the whole country, may become the most effective way of making real, planned progress in the school world. Where they are situated, who runs them, whether there should be compulsory in-service training—these matters are none of my business; I know that some of the best work that HM Inspectorate does is in regional and national courses where experience gained in everyday work is fed back into the schools' system.

It will be clear by now that I am maintaining that we are called on to have a philosophy of education, and that the ways of organising and directing our schools should be (and will be, even in a negative sense) reflections of this. Some schools are dreary and uninspiring precisely because no adequately thought-out philosophy inspires them (it is extraordinary how many quite silly habits and practices persist in schools because no thought-out attitudes prevail). Badley and Reddie created schools dedicated to clear purposes. Are such adventures to be confined only to the independent school field? Must achievement of this quality in the national system be only an isolated and ephemeral episode—a remarkable headteacher goes, and is replaced by a mediocre one, and that's that? Would not there be more permanence of achievement, more liveliness in the system, if a greater sense of partnership were developed between headteachers and assistant teachers, between adults and adolescents in the whole community? Luther's point that 'the church is always in need of reformation' is now generally accepted by Christians; the school world is equally always in need of reforming. Perhaps it is right and proper that the purpose-built and properly thought-out comprehensive school should merit our attention, for whilst no-one needs reminding that new designs of school do not by themselves solve problems, it is important to recognise that these schools do embody a new trend. Here is possible a new type of

dedication, to the proposition that *every* child is entitled to belong to a natural school community, whether he or she be gifted or not, and that we must not reserve the 'best teachers' for the 'best pupils'; the whole range of educational facilities must be available to all children. The real purpose of a comprehensive school can be ruined by poor educational thinking or poor organisation; it is only too easy to finish up with the three traditional forms of secondary school merely under one roof. Organisational talent is indispensable, even more so in large schools; and the argument is well launched as to how small a fully comprehensive school can be to offer a full educational programme. Nevertheless, national or regional courses on how such schools might be organised, courses for training potential headteachers and so on, must, I submit, all start and finish in terms of educational philosophy. What *are* our schools for? Are we content to say that their purpose is to prepare people 'to face the unknown battle of life'? Should schools, deliberately or by inference, train people to accept the values of the adult world they are about to join? Or should schools merely instruct, leaving all inference to others? These are common, indeed trite, questions, but I wish I could feel that schools were confidently answering them. Too many schools seem to stand for work, and the observance of the outlines of conventional morality.

## Who Selects—Who Interviews?

If one is to accept the need for philosophies of education that schools actually do embody and try to achieve, and if one accepts that at present almost everything depends, and will do so for a long time to come, on headteachers, principals and so on, one must wonder at times whether we have the best ways of selecting them. Who selects, who interviews? Are the procedures anywhere near accurate enough? Should there not be compulsory induction courses? Should there not be a probationary period? (It is interesting to note that those appointed to HM Inspectorate are put through a carefully planned induction course which is in fact a two years' probationary period.) Should not others, newly appointed to posts of responsibility in the educational system, also serve a probationary period in the same way? Planned action in the light of such questions would make discussion, debate and a sharing of experience a built-in characteristic of our educational provision far more than it is now and foster a greater sense of partnership amongst people with many different functions but the same end.

In the sense that schools cannot exist without being related to the community, then they exist, first of all in their own right, and then to serve and enrich the community. They will do this best by filtering into the community each year young adults who have had guided opportunities to develop whatever talent is in them, who have been given a reasonable self-confidence as a result; they will have had some real access to the cultural inheritance of our society, and will have had a better chance of coming to a degree of maturity and self-discipline by having always been treated as individuals; they will have belonged for a while to a community that cared about them.

*In this article the Chief Education Officer for Shropshire looks at in-service training in his area.*

# In-service Training in Shropshire

J. W. HENRY

Shropshire is our largest inland county, but has a population that is thinly spread over its 863,000 acres. There are 2,271 teachers, serving in 236 primary and 44 secondary schools that are well scattered. Many of the primary schools are isolated and small—there are, for example, six one-teacher and 84 two-teacher schools in the total of 236. Most of the secondary schools also are still relatively small and many of them are established in the ring of small towns dotted round the county boundaries—some distance from each other and from the county town of Shrewsbury. Many teachers, especially those in the more remote schools, have therefore felt a particular need and made a special effort to take a fresh look at their work and to meet their colleagues from other schools and other areas. In giving assistance with arrangements for in-service training, the education authority has equally been aware of the special need both for residential courses that can bring a limited number of teachers and other educationists together from a wide area and for the local study groups and one-day conferences that can serve a larger number and often involve less time and travel.

One of the liveliest and most popular movements in this field in Shropshire has been the so-called Junior Workshop, which is mentioned in the Plowden report's brief chapter on Education in Rural Areas. It is open to all teachers of children from seven to eleven, and has now been in existence for five years. Some 200 or more teachers from town and country meet about six times a year in comfortable surroundings to hear talks and discuss topics of common interest. Some of these one-night sessions are led-off by speakers invited from farther afield, and all of them provide opportunities for teachers to get down to brass tacks in smaller discussion groups. In addition, members may pursue special interests or activities in smaller groups that meet on other occasions during the year. At present, these groups are for heads of two-teacher schools, for heads of large junior schools, for teachers interested in creative work with materials and for those concerned with environmental studies and the field work that forms part of this group's activities.

Although this particular movement provides specifically for teachers of junior children, there are similarly active groups to be found amongst teachers of children in other age groups. With all groups the general trend in the past few years has been increasingly towards a pattern of day courses and local study groups. This pattern enables many more teachers to participate and to take the initiative locally in the development of activities best suited to the current circumstances and interests of the teachers in a particular area. One local study group, for example, consisted of the mathematics teachers in a comprehensive school and the heads of the contributory primary schools in the area,

assisted by a college of education lecturer and a primary school adviser. Their self-imposed task was to consider what mathematical experience a primary school child might be expected to have had before transfer to a secondary school. Perhaps the most valuable and significant feature of this group's work was that, in the course of comparing notes, shaping their own ideas and reaching agreement in a particular field of study, these teachers in very different types of school learned to appreciate each other's viewpoints and objectives more readily and, incidentally, produced a notebook of ideas to serve as a point of reference for others interested. At the last count, there were some 40 local study groups in various parts of the county, either in operation or preparing to start work. Where study groups have been in existence for some time, the effect on the quality of the work in the schools is most marked.

## In-service Training

The initiative in the field of in-service training will clearly continue to be taken in an increasing range of activities by groups of teachers themselves, whether through general associations of teachers, subject teachers' associations, or local groups of teachers working in a particular area. Local and professional initiative taken in this way will continue to need support from various sources and in particular from the education authority. The immediate needs are two fold—to provide locally at least the minimum facilities needed by these working groups, and to ensure that teachers who are encouraged and stimulated by these group activities, or by attendance at conferences, are given the necessary help, when they return to the comparative isolation of their schools, to enable them to break new ground and develop new approaches. As far as local facilities are concerned, Shropshire teachers have been accustomed to making do with 'spiritual' centres in their existing school premises, but the authority is now engaged in providing local centres for teachers. Four of these will be available during the academic year 1967-68, and it is hoped that teachers' steering committees will develop programmes that will contribute to the in-service training needs of the profession as well as to the process of curriculum review. With regard to the help that some teachers may need in developing new lines of thought and approaches when they are in the relative isolation of their schools, the authority already has a team of advisers whose help has always been available to teachers in their schools as well as at conferences and courses. However, the very large number of scattered schools makes it impossible for the advisers to carry out effectively all the necessary follow-up work developing from the growing number of courses and local study groups. A pilot scheme has therefore been introduced to make it possible for schools which are anxious to adopt new techniques, and where teachers have asked for additional help during the early stages of these developments, to call on the assistance of a number of experienced practising teachers who are being released on a part-time or full-time basis to act as consultants in this way.

The increased emphasis that is being laid on local activities and self-help does not mean, of course, that the system is in danger of becoming inbred and the teachers insulated from outside contacts and influences. In addition to the value attached to the normal practice of inviting

speakers of distinction to participate in teachers' conferences, there is, for example, a steady strengthening of two-way communications between the schools and several colleges of education, most of which are just across Shropshire's borders in adjoining counties. In one part of the county, which is to be associated with the Nuffield Foundation/Schools Council pilot scheme for the teaching of French in primary schools, the eighteen teachers who volunteered to take part in the scheme have received invaluable help from a nearby college of education in preparing themselves for the start of the project. Arrangements were made for them to go to the college on two mornings a week for several weeks during term-time, and there they were able to take their initial language course. Colleges of education have also been generous in making available the services of lecturers to come as tutors to conferences and study groups of teachers, and many teachers benefit from the seminars and courses arranged by the institutes and colleges. At the same time, Shropshire teachers have contributed in various ways to help the work of the colleges of education. In addition to the assistance that is readily given by schools in connection with teaching practice for students, a number of teachers have been helping in the work of some of the colleges, and one group of primary school heads, for example, together with one of the primary school advisers, acted as tutors on an in-service training course arranged by a college of education across the border for primary school teachers in its area. Links that are being developed with arrangements made by neighbouring education authorities and with work sponsored by the universities in the area are also likely to be of increasing assistance to teachers who are seeking further opportunities to become familiar with new content and methods and to try out experimental work.

## Curriculum Review

Much of what has been said so far is concerned largely with activities in the field of primary education. Secondary school teachers, however, are also deeply involved in looking afresh at the state of their own knowledge and at the need for a review of curriculum and methods. This has been most apparent in recent years in certain subject areas, such as mathematics, science and languages. Great interest has been shown in work on trials of new approaches and new equipment. In mathematics, for example, it was clear from meetings held a few years ago, at the time when the introduction of the CSE examination triggered off a number of discussions, that many teachers felt themselves ill-prepared to deal with some of the topics often grouped under the omnibus title of 'modern mathematics', and would welcome the opportunity to bring themselves up to date'. An introductory series of talks was given to each of two groups of sixty teachers by two members of staff from a neighbouring college of education, and this was followed by a deeper investigation of the ideas fundamental to the new approaches to mathematics teaching. Schools were also invited to take part in an experimental course based on a series of books written by one of the lecturers, the purpose of which was to test the suitability of a syllabus in modern mathematics, based on sound logical principles and woven into the best of the traditional syllabus. Thirty-one modern and grammar schools participated, and the teachers concerned met weekly to discuss the progress of the work and to revise the text. Some of the books in the series have now been

published, but the work of the so-called Shropshire mathematics experiment continues; and teachers are still closely involved in the process of critical analysis. Similarly, the growth of interest in the Nuffield Foundation's science teaching project has encouraged many teachers to attend in-service courses, in order to familiarise themselves with new approaches based on experimental work by pupils and with the new apparatus involved. A particularly valuable link has been developed with a neighbouring education authority and college of education in this field, and local group meetings of teachers have followed their attendance at courses. The growing use of audio-visual aids, including the establishment of language laboratories, has accelerated interest on the part of language teachers in understanding and developing new techniques, and one of the by-products of a conference arranged by the authority has been the formation of an association of modern language teachers, with membership open to teachers in independent and maintained schools.

Although special mention has been made of activities in mathematics, science and languages, there is also a steady demand for, and provision of, conferences, courses and other forms of help in a wide range of subjects of interest to secondary school teachers. In addition to the assistance given in this way to specialist teachers, there has been a welcome growth in the number of inter-disciplinary activities. Many secondary school teachers are already engaged in preparations for the raising of the school-leaving age, and this is clearly a field of work in which teachers will wish to cut across subject boundaries and to have regard to the full range of social and academic needs of their older pupils. A study group of teachers, with the authority's secondary school adviser, has already been meeting regularly to compare notes and develop ideas on the theme 'Humanities and the Slow Learner'. As was suggested in the foreword to the Schools' Council's *Working Paper No. 2*, time is short, and many of the problems are of considerable complexity and difficulty. This authority expects to increase considerably the amount of support that some teachers will need in terms of re-thinking and re-training by 1971, and it is likely that a planning conference of heads and other senior staff of secondary schools held during the summer holiday, 1967, to discuss the raising of the school-leaving age will offer teachers and the education authority food for thought on such topics as the organisation of the school day, the curriculum and methods of teaching. One aspect of a secondary school teacher's work that steadily looms larger, and certainly cuts across subject barriers, is the need (and the ability) to guide and counsel pupils, particularly in the complex field of personal relationships. Ways of helping schools in this context have been examined by a working party of teachers from a number of schools, education advisers and a medical officer, and experience being gained in the broader field of school counselling will also be called upon to assist teachers and pupils in the coming years.

## Re-training Courses

Over and above the manifold provision already made or planned by the education authority and others to give teachers the facilities they need for refresher and re-training courses, there is a growing demand for help in preparing teachers for work in new forms of organisation—in

comprehensive schools generally and, for those likely to be involved with a three-tier system of organisation, in the middle school in particular. It is not only the assistant teacher who will need help in this respect, but more especially the head, who may well be concerned with greater and more complex responsibilities than before. At present, these needs are being met partly by secondment to out-county courses and conferences and partly by discussion group methods. Here again, the demand will grow as reorganisation gains momentum. Last but not least in this catalogue of provision for those who need refreshment or retraining comes our provision for those who have left teaching and are thinking of returning. Most of these are married women who are interested in coming back to teaching on a part-time basis, but are unable for the time being (usually because their own children are not yet old enough) to return to work. A primary school adviser has contacted them and formed a Return-to-Teaching Club for them, and at present they meet once a month for discussions and occasional visits to schools to follow up a particular aspect of work. The following is a typical term's programme: Centre of Interest Work (talk by primary school adviser); visit to a junior school; film—an environmental study (made in Shropshire); child guidance work (talk by senior educational psychologist).

The Plowden report has said that the unique freedom of the English schools is defensible only if teachers prove themselves equipped to meet demands which are increasingly exacting, and that all teachers should have a substantial period of in-service training at least every five years. The report also suggests that the review of in-service training ought to answer the question whether it reaches the teachers and areas most in need of it, and whether it is dealing with the right topics and in sufficient depth. Whether the report's comments on this issue will meet with general acceptance remains to be seen. All the activities that have been described above are undertaken voluntarily by the teachers concerned, and are a measure of their sense of need for a critical examination and continuous assessment of methods, techniques and curriculum developments. While the authority will continue to give all possible help to all teachers and schools to make it possible for individuals to engage in arrangements for in-service training, care will need to be taken by all concerned to ensure a proper balance of interests. However, there is a clear recognition by the teaching profession and by the education authority that the education service faces increasing pressures with limited resources. It is therefore seen as all the more important that the most effective use be made of the facilities and teaching force available, and in-service training clearly forms an essential part of the pattern.

*The first stage of an international study of education, the most important yet attempted, was completed in 1967.*

# International Study of Achievement in Mathematics

G. F. PEAKER

This study was a new departure in international co-operation, in which representatives of the research institutes in twelve countries worked together at intervals over several years and, with the aid of teachers and pupils in their countries, collected over 50 million pieces of information (now stored in the data bank). It is a commonplace today that international bodies are prone to generate heat through friction. In this one the warmth was convivial—a remarkable state of affairs for which most of the credit should go to the chairman and editor, Torsten Husen.

Mathematics was chosen for the first of this planned series of international studies because it is reasonable to think that there are more common elements, and fewer linguistic difficulties, than in other subjects. In the next study it is intended to cover science, the mother tongue, foreign language and civics. The lessons learned, and the mistakes made, in carrying out the first study should be useful in tackling the greater difficulties of the second. It is obvious that international comparisons of systems of education can cover a wider range of variation than is to be found in any single country.

The 12 countries that took part in the study fall naturally into four groups. There were two Scandinavian countries, Sweden and Finland. In Western Europe there were France, Belgium, the Netherlands and Western Germany. The English speaking countries were the United States, England, Scotland and Australia. From a wider ambit there were Israel and Japan. Others were interested in the early stages, but fell out by the way.

Before the systems can be compared something must be done about three kinds of problem. In the first place the populations to be compared must be defined, and sampling must be designed. Secondly, measures must be devised, both for the educational achievement and for the factors thought to be associated with it—whether they are so associated will appear in the upshot. Finally a conceptual model is needed. Initially the important parts of the conceptual model are bound to be rather vague; if they were not there would be no case for the inquiry. They consist of such guesses about the relation of cause and effect, and the way the factors hang together, as the inquirer can make on the basis of the previous evidence. The process is essentially one of tinkering. The initial guesses guide the first steps in the inquiry. If they are any good some of them will be confirmed by the observations, and the latter may suggest modifications to bring the others more closely into accordance with the facts. This process of guessing, checking, and tinkering, sometimes rather magniloquently called the hypothetico-deductive process, is the ordinary way of

scientific advance. In the social as opposed to the physical sciences it is of course still at an extremely rudimentary stage.

## Defining Populations

The three sets of problems, of sampling, of measurement, and of analysis and interpretation, all interact. The first is the simplest, since the sampling of finite populations is now well understood.

Five populations were defined. These were:

(1a) All pupils aged 13 at the time of the inquiry.

(1b) All pupils in the grade in which 1a is most commonly found. (In England the difference between population 1a and 1b is the difference between a row and a column in Forms 7 (schools). In countries with grade repetition the difference is larger.)

(2a) Intermediate populations, defined separately by each country.

(3a) All pupils in the grades or forms from which universities normally recruit their students, who are studying mathematics as a prime part of their course.

(3b) Pupils in the same grade or form for whom mathematics is not a prime part of the course.

Thus in England population 3a covered second and third year sixth forms in mathematics or mathematics and science courses, and population 3b the pupils in other second and third year sixth form courses. The intermediate populations were brought in to the comparisons within countries but not into the comparisons between countries.

On the basis of English experience it seemed likely that if full use were made of stratification a two-stage sampling design, with schools as the primary sampling units and an average of about 30 selected pupils per school in each population would produce a design effect in the neighbourhood of four. The design effect is the ratio of the actual number of pupils in the sample to the number in the simple equivalent sample—that is, the simple random sample giving the standard errors of the same size as those found from the complex sampling design actually used.

Ideally the samples should have been of the same size everywhere, but in practice the size depended on the resources each country was prepared to devote to the project, and attention had to be concentrated on two points—first to ensure that practically the whole of each target population was included in the sampled population, and secondly that every pupil and school within each sampled population had a specifiable chance of being included in the sample. It would have been uneconomical to make the chance the same for every school and pupil, but where the chances were varied from stratum to stratum compensation was provided in the shape of differential weighting. The only major departure from the principle that the sampled population should be substantially the same as the target population was in Israel, where the children of recent immigrants from some countries were excluded.

## The Conceptual Model and the Choice of Variables

A main use of the conceptual model is to suggest the choice of variables. But this choice must also be guided by the practicability of obtaining information. This is a severe limitation, particularly when the inquiry

is concerned with a dozen countries. For example, the interviews with parents that played so large a part in the Plowden inquiry play no part here because there is nothing analogous to the government social survey organisation in other countries.

The information from which the variables were generated was obtained by means of pupil, teacher, school, and national questionnaires.

The preparation of these questionnaires was an arduous business, since in addition to the usual pattern of drafting, piloting, re-drafting, pre-testing, and re-drafting again, each questionnaire had to be translated into eight languages, and the problems of translation were sometimes severe, for example for types of occupation and types of school. Some questions were not acceptable in every country: these were questions relating to the attitudes of pupils and teachers and they were omitted in countries where it was felt that they would raise opposition. This accounts for the absence of some countries from some tables in the report.

Another kind of difficulty was encountered in devising the series of tests in mathematics. Here the general object was to have easy tests for the younger pupils, and harder for the older, with some tests acting as bridges. It was clear that two extremes must be avoided. On the one hand the tests must not be too easy, which would be the case if they were confined to items studied in every country. On the other hand they must not be too hard, so that items studied in only one country must be excluded. On the whole the committee that devised the tests leant in the direction of inclusion, as may be seen from the results. The teachers were asked to say for each item whether the pupil had had an opportunity to learn the associated mathematics. The evidence shows that many pupils had not had the opportunity to learn the mathematics associated with many of the test items, but it seems more reasonable to interpret this as meaning that these were relatively backward students than as meaning that the best items were badly chosen. While the results could provide some evidence about the items that were included they could provide none about those that were not. This was the reason why the committee leant towards inclusion rather than exclusion. There was some criticism in England because the whole of the applied mathematics that plays a large part in English sixth form work was excluded; the reason was that in other countries this is regarded as a part of physics and not included in the mathematics course.

## Some Results

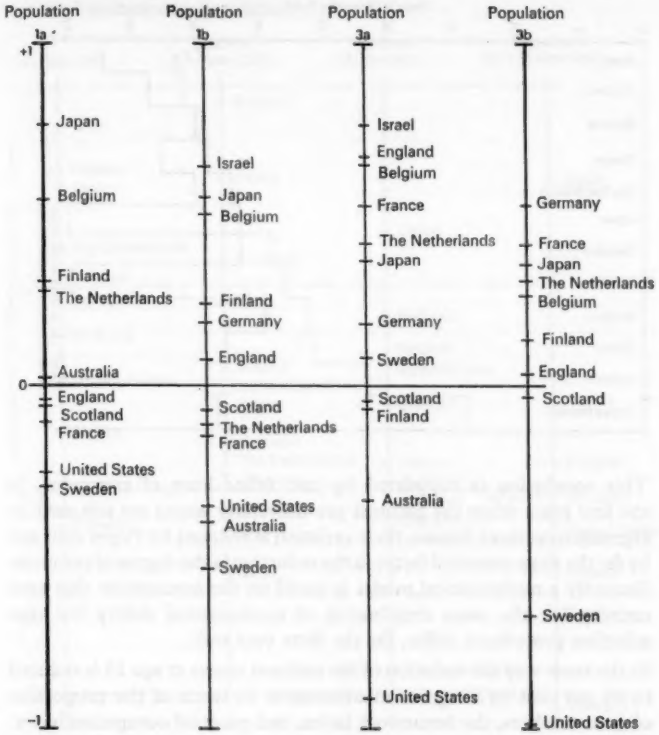
The figure opposite shows the national mean scores, expressed as deviations from the grand mean (in standard deviation units).

At the 13 year level the range is from 31.2 for Japan to 15.7 for Sweden.

This difference of 15.5 points is more than one standard deviation of the combined distribution of all scores. The range of national means is even greater for population 3a, from 36.4 in Israel to 13.8 in the United States, a difference of 22.6 points on a combined standard deviation of 13.8. In population 3b the range is from 27.7 in Germany to 8.3 in the United States, a difference of 19.4 on a combined standard deviation of 12.8.

Perhaps the most striking features of Figure 2 (page 46) are the high standard deviations of England and Japan for the younger populations, and of Japan for the older. What these two figures do not bring out is

**Figure One** National means expressed as deviations from the grand mean (in standard deviation units).

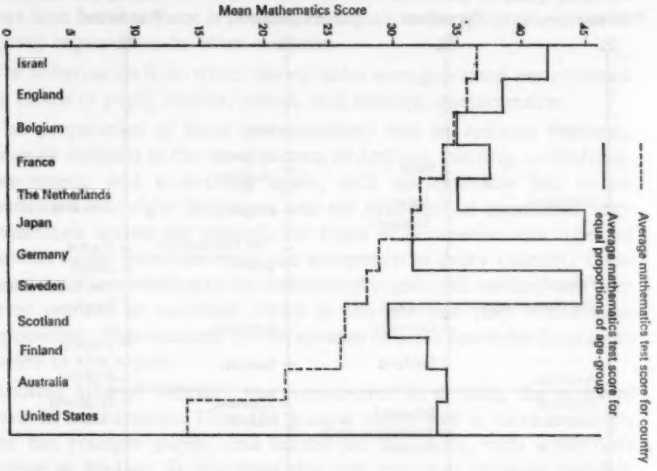



the effect of selection, or retentivity. The proportion of the age group in population 3a ranges from 4 per cent in Belgium to 18 per cent in the United States. Allowance is made for this in Figure 3 (page 47).

In this figure the dotted line represents the average scores for the whole of population 3a, and the continuous line the average score for the best pupils, reckoned as a constant proportion of the whole age group. Thus in Belgium, where population 3a is the smallest proportion of the whole age group (4 per cent) the two scores are the same. In other countries, since the population contained more than 4 per cent of the age group, the scores for the best 4 per cent are greater. In particular, Japan and Sweden, with 8 per cent and 16 per cent respectively, rise to the top, and the United States, with 18 per cent, no longer holds the wooden spoon. If we now compare Figure 3 and Figure 1 we see from the latter that Japan gets off from a good start at age 13, whereas Sweden and the United States get off to a very bad start indeed. None the less the higher retentivity in Sweden (16 per cent) and the United States (18 per cent) bring the former up to parity with Japan and the latter to a respectable position at the pre-university stage. More generally speaking, Figure 3 strongly suggests that the amount of mathematical talent is very much the same in all these countries, though the policies used to develop it differ.

The figures in this article are from *International Study of Achievement in Mathematics*, Vol. II, edited by Torsten Husen (Stockholm, 1967).

**Figure Two** National standard deviations divided by grand overall standard deviations.



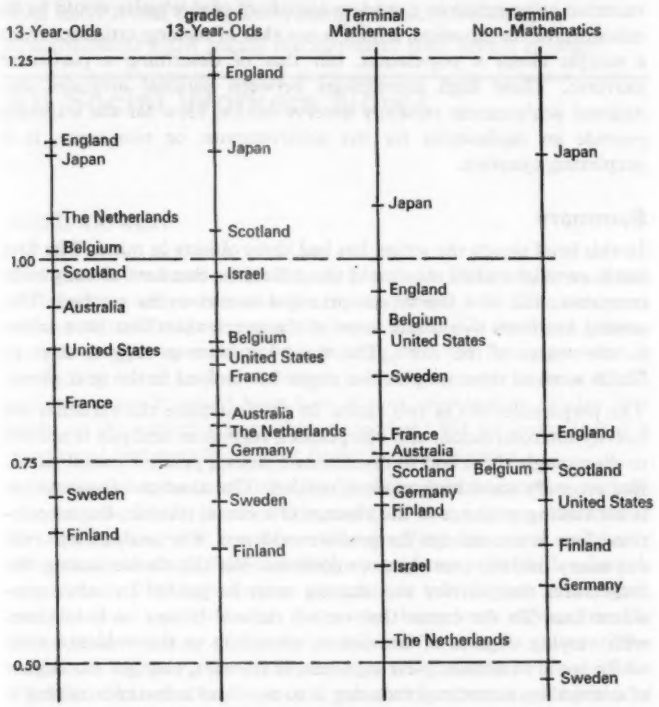

This conclusion is supported by two other lines of argument. In the first place when the national pre-university scores are adjusted by regression on three factors, their variation is reduced by 70 per cent and by far the most powerful factor in the reduction is the degree of selection. Secondly a mathematical model is based on the assumption that each country has the same distribution of mathematical ability but that selection procedures differ, fits the facts very well.

In the same way the variation of the national scores at age 13 is reduced by 83 per cent by a regression adjustment in terms of the proportion of man teachers, the homework index, and parental occupation index. In the inquiry an attempt was made to assess pupils' attitudes as well as their accomplishments. Five attitude scales were extracted from the answers to the pupil questionnaire. The first scale inquires about the degree to which mathematics is seen as fixed and given once and for all time (a low score), or as something that is developing, growing, and changing (a high score). It is interesting that in all the countries, without exception, the more advanced mathematics students view mathematics as more fixed and frozen than do the younger or the less advanced students. The differences between countries are marked, amounting to about a full standard deviation of the pooled distribution of students scores. A country that is high at the lower school level tends to be high also at the upper level. There is a suggestion that those countries in which the teachers report teaching 'new mathematics' are the countries that see mathematics as more of an open and changing system.

In the second scale a low score means that mathematics is seen as difficult and something reserved for an intellectual élite, whereas a high score means that it is seen as within the reach of most students.

In the third scale a high score represents the belief that mathematics has a vital part to play in our society, and a low score a belief that this is not the case. There are substantial differences between the countries. The importance of mathematics is rated lowest in the countries where English is spoken. This consistency within a language grouping may reflect consistency in the national value systems, but we must entertain

**Figure Three** Mean mathematics test scores (1) for the total sample and (2) for equal proportions of the age group in each country for terminal mathematics population.




the possibility that it reflects some subtle difference in the translation of the wording of the questions making up the scale.

In the fourth scale a high score expresses liking for school and the experiences it provides. Here also the least favourable attitudes are expressed by students from the countries where English is the mother tongue, and the lowest among these are the students from the United States. The most positive attitudes are expressed by the Japanese students.

In the fifth scale a low score corresponds to the belief that mankind is helpless in the face of the forces at work in his world, and a high score to the feeling that he is in some degree master of his own fate. The greatest optimism is expressed in Japan, and the greatest pessimism in the United States.

These national attitudes were compared with the national achievement, and the results were that in those countries in which achievement is high, pupils have a greater tendency to perceive mathematics as a fixed and closed system, as difficult to learn and for an intellectual élite, and as important to the future of human society. In these countries pupils tend to be favourably disposed towards school and school learning and to feel that man has some mastery and control over his destiny.

The correlations between countries are strikingly high; this is because much of the individual variation cancels out over whole countries. It should be noted that the twelve countries in the study are not to be

thought of as a random sample from a larger population of countries. They are themselves the universe of discourse for the study. To think of the correlations between countries as subject to the sampling variation appropriate to a random sample of twelve units would be to misconceive the situation, which is not that of making estimates from a sample about a population, but that of describing a particular universe. These high correlations between national attitudes and national achievement certainly deserve notice. How far the attitudes provide an explanation for the achievements, or *vice versa*, is a perplexing question.

## Summary

In this brief sketch the writer has had three objects in mind. The first has been to give some account of the difficulties that have already been overcome, and of a few of the principal results so far reached. The second has been to indicate some of the perplexities that have arisen in the course of the work. The third has been to suggest ways in which some of these perplexities might be resolved in the next phase.

The perplexities are of two kinds. In the first place the variables are heavily intercorrelated, and complicated regression analysis is needed to disentangle them and to discriminate among possible causal paths. But secondly something more is needed. The absence of association is convincing evidence of the absence of a causal relation, but association alone is not enough for positive evidence. The analysis will rule out many initially promising conjectures. But the choice among the conjectures that survive the analysis must be guided by other considerations. To the extent that we are rational beings we hold views with varying degrees of conviction, according to the evidence with which we are familiar. New evidence, if relevant, changes the degree of conviction, sometimes reducing it to zero and sometimes raising it to near certainty. Association is necessary for relevance, but it is not enough. Judgement is also needed, if relevance is to be interpreted in a causal sense. What is meant by judgement here is easier to exemplify than to define. For example, in the writer's judgement the judgement of most teachers will accept the explanation given above for the wide national variations in the pre-university standard. The explanation, in terms of the standard at thirteen, the length of the course, and the severity of the selection accords well with common sense. So perhaps does the first explanation offered for the narrower variation at thirteen, in terms of the proportion of men teachers, the homework index, and the parental occupation index. But an alternative explanation, in which the proportion of men teachers operates indirectly through the two associated attitudes reminds one of Huckleberry Finn's comment 'Interesting but steep'.

The main suggestion for the next phase is that more time is needed between the field work and the report. The first phase showed interesting variations within countries for some of which there was too little time to find explanations. The mathematics study showed that the socio-economic background of the students had a much more powerful impact than the purely school variables, and the systems therefore should be seen more closely in their social context. The fact that the first phase raised more problems than it solved is not a matter for surprise: this is common to most inquiries, and particularly to those that are the first of their kind.

*It is hoped from time to time to identify groups of new books which together illustrate a trend in education. One such trend is the increasing preoccupation of educationists with social background and social change.*

# All Social Workers Now?

NOEL COWEN

We must all be social workers now, Mr F. H. Pedley tells us, introducing a new symposium on education and social work. The statement will seem terrifying to some teachers, timely no doubt to others, according to temperament and training. To the historian what is interesting about such a statement is that it can be made at all. A generation ago it would have been almost meaningless. Today four books on the subject appear almost together.[1] We are aware that it is urgent and that something more has to be done about it.

A change in fact has come over the English education service, and the clue may be found in a new biography of that veteran educationist Sir Fred Clarke.[2] He too wrote a book called *Education and Social Change*, a title which Edmund King now appropriates (with acknowledgements). The introduction promised a 'sociological standpoint', but the year was 1940 and those who have been exposed to the educational sociology of the sixties will look in vain for traces of this subject in that pamphlet of another age. (It appeared as No. 3 of the Christian News-Letter Books and was mainly about the iniquities of the pre-war 11 plus—'The distribution of education, the maladjustment of the various elements of the system . . .'). Six years later, with the war behind us and a new Education Act on the Statute Book, Clarke became the first of the roll-call of names that includes Crowther, Newsom and Plowden. He was the first chairman of the Central Advisory Council (England) and in 1947 signed a report called *School and Life*. In contrast to some later CAC reports it ran to little more than a hundred pages and sold for half a crown, but it covered almost every educational topic you care to think of, buildings, teachers, school curriculum further education, health, morality—everything in fact except the kind of thing the title would suggest nowadays There was a good deal of pious hope in it, and the following is fairly typical:

> Understanding between home and school is important, because even with the best will in the world, most parents cannot provide children with the space they require and enough varied outlets for their energies. Where the home cannot provide these outlets it is even more important that the school should remedy the deficiency. A school should give a boy or girl opportunities for adventure,

[1] *Education and Social Work*, ed. F. H. Pedley, Pergamon, 25*s*. *Education and Social Change*. Edmund J. King, Pergamon, 21*s*. *The School in its Social Setting*. J. B. Mays, Longmans, 10*s*. 6*d*. *Linking Home and School*, ed. Maurice Craft, John Raynor, Louis Cohen. Longmans, 27*s*. 6*d*.

[2] *Sir Fred Clarke, Master-Teacher 1880-1952*. Frank W. Mitchell, Longmans, 45*s*.

> experiment, leisured reading and a full stretching of his or her capabilities. It has to be remembered, however, that the contrast between what the schools can provide, and what can be provided in the homes, creates problems that the parents and the teachers must together resolve.

This may seem today hardly to grasp the underlying social realities.

Frank Mitchell recalls an article which Clarke wrote soon afterwards in which he admitted that the CAC had tried and failed 'to survey the variety of beliefs, ideals and principles which operate as sanctions among Englishmen'. In that failure lay the seeds of success, for Clarke turned instead to 'watch closely the *practical* working out of the Act', including the work of the National Foundation for Educational Research, of which he was (to quote the commemorative plaque) 'a founder and faithful friend'. It was symptomatic of the change that was to sweep English education that when it turned away from 'beliefs, ideals and principles' it turned in the direction of research.

But the education service was still bemused by those processes of selection and grading against which Clarke had fulminated in 1940, and much of the early work of the NFER went (at the request of the LEAs) into methods of separating sheep and goats. But the tide was setting towards sociology, and a new CAC in 1954, turning its attention to early leaving, helped to set the new fashion by asking at the outset for some facts about school leavers, 'including something of their background, circumstances and school records', and actually asking questions and publishing tables about the occupation of their fathers. Meanwhile the Department of Sociological and Demographic Research at the LSE had turned its attention to studies that were to emerge in 1956 as *Social class and educational opportunity* (J. E. Floud, A. H. Halsey and F. M. Martin); and in that year the Crowther council was required to take account 'of changing social and industrial needs' in reviewing the education of the 15-18-year-olds. By the time the council reported in 1959 sociologists at a number of universities were undertaking studies at the socio-educational interface.

'A picture emerges,' wrote Floud and Halsey in NFER'S *Educational Research* in February 1961, 'of working-class children, on average, doing less well than others academically, being rated by teachers lower on personality characteristics associated with academic attainment, expressing less concern themselves about their progress in school, participating less in extra-curricular activities, leaving school at an earlier age and aiming less high vocationally.' Such a picture raised the question whether children of equal ability had equal chances of educational success, regardless of their social origins; and educationists began to accept a new objective, 'to produce, as it were, a natural order of inequality, unmarred by factions and irrelevant social differences.'

In 1962 came three studies of critical importance: J. B. Mays writing on *Education and the urban child*, B. Jackson and D. Marsden on *Education and the working class*, and M. P. Carter on *Home, school and work*. These were all based on field studies in northern industrial cities, and they demonstrated a complexity of relationships between the schools system and the class structure that could no longer be ignored even if it could not easily be remedied. The Newsom council was already at work (it had been established in 1961 to consider the

education of 13-16 year old pupils of average or less than average ability) and the second recommendation of its report in 1963 was for 'a programme of research in teaching techniques designed, particularly, to help pupils whose abilities are artificially depressed by environmental and linguistic handicaps'. In the following year J. W. B. Douglas pushed the basic research back into the primary schools, and at the beginning of 1967 came the report of the Plowden council with its own battery of research results and its plans for education priority areas. The lessons of earlier research were being taken to heart, and in schools and colleges throughout the country the implications for curriculum and teaching method were being explored (with a further fillip after 1964 from the publications of the Schools Council).

It was at about this time that the four books listed at the beginning of this article were being prepared for the press. They mark perhaps the beginning of a new and second phase in English education's involvement with sociology. In the first stage, which has lasted about a decade, educational thought had taken account of the subject. Now it was the turn of educational practice. These books are an attempt to assist in that process.

It must be admitted at once that they are only partially successful. But perhaps that is all they are meant to be. The definitive work, the reassuring handbook, has yet to appear. These are preliminary sweeps with the hoe rather than systematic cultivation, but the sweeps are sometimes nice to watch and a thistle or two gets laid in the process. There is a frankly journalistic air about them: indeed the two volumes from Longmans are compiled from papers previously published elsewhere. But any of the four might be useful on a college student's bookshelf and three out of the four in the staff room of a down-town school. (King's book looks at social change in global terms rather than the needs of the school neighbourhood.)

Professor John Mays, who is always a pleasure to read and whose book is all of a piece, begins very properly at the beginning:

> This series of short essays is written for those who know nothing about sociology but who would like to know something about its relevance to education. It is intended for practising teachers who have little time to spare for detailed study of social science but who would perhaps benefit from understanding how a sociologist views a school and how he sets about examining it in relation to the educational system.

This leads the author to identify for the school two principal functions: 'to transmit the main cultural values of society, and to facilitate social mobility and promote social change'. (One wonders how many school teachers would recognise their work in that description.) But he seems rather dubious about both. He tells us about sub-cultures and social deviance and the young delinquent and, towards the end, that 'schools, by themselves, are not very powerful, have indeed very little influence'. As a sociologist, however, he finds some hope in 'the ever increasing demand for social science courses at university, training and technical colleges level'. Social science, he believes, will not only 'help us to link science and the humanities, it will also go a long way towards reconciling the classes and socio-cultural groups into which our present community is sadly divided'. Maybe: in the meantime there are the teachers already working in the

downtown schools and the students who may shortly find themselves there. Having followed Professor Mays on his brisk tour of the general concepts they may turn to the other volumes with a desire to get down to cases. The editors of the two symposia have attempted to meet this need.

*Linking Home and School* is a selection of readings from articles, books and conference papers. But the aim of Craft, Raynor and Cohen was more than scissors and paste:

> We have tried to underline the value of closer parent-teacher contact, and of the school as a focal point in the local community. We have tried to present a wider view of the teachers' role than that which is traditional and deeply rooted, and have advanced our belief in the common ground shared by teachers and social workers.

On the whole they succeed rather well, despite the patchwork quality of their material. Perhaps this is because the roots of the book are in the practical task they undertook in the department of sociology of the Edge Hill College of Education in Lancashire to develop a main course in social work for intending teachers. From the introductory section on the administrative, social and political context we move to a collection of recent studies: of parents by Josephine Klein, of the working class by Dennis Marsden, of neighbourhood values by John Mays (in a welcome return), of language and learning by Basil Bernstein, of environment by Stephen Wiseman, of liaison between school and neighbourhood by Louis Cohen, and of parent-teacher co-operation by Michael Young. In various ways and from various standpoints these essays help to set the scene before we meet the *dramatis personnae:* the education welfare officer (by A. Dawson), school care committee (Adeline M. Warble), social workers attached to schools (Margaret H. Auld and from A. R. Chorlton), the teacher/social worker (Maurice Craft), and the school counsellor (John M. Raynor), and finally learn about professional training in general (Professor J. W. Tibble). Here are some well-selected insights into the sort of work that is being done; and in a final chapter Professor William Taylor attempts an overview of the entire collection.

His basic theme, and it is an important one, is that we must avoid the 'facile assumption that the interests of parent and teacher in the development of the child are the same—or can be made so through efficient liaison and communication'. One result of more intimate contact may in fact be that 'the discrepancies in the value orientations and aspirations of the two roles are exposed more clearly'. On the one side 'the parent role emphasises acceptance of the child, warts and all, irrespective of standards of performance or of levels of attainment'; or the other role of the teacher imposes 'a more objective, achievement oriented approach, where performance will be evaluated'. There is a tension here that is likely to emerge with greater force as the role of the school is strengthened through educational reform. Is an answer to be sought, in any way at all, in the clearer emergence of a third force, the social-worker intermediary between school and home?

The third of these volumes may suggest some approaches to this problem. The editor clearly hopes so:

> A study of the problem suggests that success may depend on a number of related developments: first an analysis of the casework techniques of the social worker and of the ways in which these can

> be woven into the group situation which faces the teacher; then the cultivation of a fruitful relationship with the neighbourhood and especially with the parents . . . next, a deliberate attempt to co-ordinate . . . the multiplicity of social agencies involved with any family in trouble; and, finally, a careful assessment of the emotional needs of children . . .

This is an ambitious programme, but the half-dozen essays of which *Education and Social Work* is comprised go a fair way towards introducing it. In the first Maurice Craft reappears to remind us that

> The values of the school may enhance or inhibit what is learned, may aid or retard mental health. And the standards and expectations of the child's peer group, family circle, and neighbourhood may almost entirely determine his receptivity and his intellectual horizons at school.

From this and from the evidence of social research Craft concludes that

> the teacher ought to acquire, not intuitively, or incidentally and by accident but as a central tool of his trade, a detailed knowledge of the child, his family background, the social and economic structure of the immediate locality, and the pattern of local social services. It follows that initial and in-service courses of training should embody a planned, conscious effort to alert teachers to this dimension of their work.

Two essays follow on the child and his family and neighbourhood; and the rest of the book is about the pattern of social service into which the work of the school must somehow dovetail. We are told by Owen Whitney (whose background includes marriage guidance) that

> the aim of personal education is to help young people understand and order their experiment of human relationships in an emotionally charged and unstable world.

Lorna Ridgway (with a background of fifteen years as a head teacher) finds the school virtually taking the place of the extended family and argues that it should therefore 'seek to provide social and emotional nutriment as well as intellectual food'. The traditional role of the teacher would need reviewing; but Miss Ridgway warns us that the job cannot be done by teachers alone. It requires also 'co-operation with social, welfare and psychiatric workers whose contributions would become progressively more constructive and less those of rescue and remedial work'.

It is left then to Dancy Hazel to tell us about the professional social worker (after a special chapter devoted by Catherine Avent to careers counselling) and to round off the whole discussion with a picture of the system at work. Her chapter on the social worker is clear and informative and a helpful short introduction to the various agencies, voluntary and statutory, at work in the field. The clue to her approach is

> that teachers have neither the time nor the professional knowledge and skills to carry out intensive social casework, yet, at the same time, the need for fuller social work participation by teachers is urgent.

To this limited extent (and the limitation is important) it is perhaps time, as Pedley claims, that we are all social workers now. The school

certainly can hardly do its work effectively these days without a closer understanding of the home and the local community.

It is when one turns to that other interface which the school shares with the larger society—the mediation to its pupils of economic and social change at large—that one finds uncertainty of method and confusion of counsel. Professor Taylor puts the point clearly in the introduction to a Schools Council Working Paper[1] on a conference called in preparation for the raising of the school leaving age:

> Implications for education are seen in the rising tide of crime, in the will to revitalise the nation's economic life, in the changing shape of social and moral concepts, in dealing with mass media . . .

All professional educationists, he says, are only too well aware of this.

> Equally they are aware that to accept each implication as it comes along and at its face value would be a risky business—and perhaps not entirely their business at that.

Hence the need, as Taylor puts it, to formulate a strategy.

Yet it must be questioned whether this is in any meaningful sense possible at present. Certainly nothing resembling a strategy emerges from the papers presented at the Schools Council conference: only a scatter of reconnaissances along a broken front. This is not to say they are not worth reading: there is good provocative matter in all of them, though only tenuously related in parts to the prospects for a longer school life. The report is in fact at its best and its most relevant when it turns (as in the papers by Himmelweit and Musgrove) from the larger issues of a changing society to the particular needs of school, home and locality.

This mitigation is unfortunately absent from Dr King's book on *Education and Social Change* which bears in general a rather old-fashioned look. Dr King also is looking if not for a strategy at any rate for a unifying theme whereby 'a preliminary study of education helps to bring more coherence to studies which have often seemed disjointed, if not diffuse'. It is not for want of either detailed knowledge or pithy generalisations on Dr King's part if at the end of his book his several themes still seem disjointed and diffuse. It does perhaps succeed in sketching in some broad changes in social and historical perspectives (and for that reason alone is likely to be well-thumbed in college libraries), and as one would expect from Dr King it shows a nice sense of what is happening in other countries; but as an instrument for integrating the school with the larger society it is perhaps too remote from the earthy realities.

Stephen Cotgrove gets nearer the target in a new volume in the Minerva series. *The Science of Society*[2] is sub-titled 'an introduction to sociology' and is offered 'not only to university students, but also to the rapidly growing number studying sociology in colleges of education and technical colleges'. The title has been used before, for example in a large American study by Summer and Keller in 1927 which roamed all over the world and a large part of history. Professor

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[1] *The Educational Implications of Social and Economic Change*. Working Paper No. 12. HMSO for Schools Council, 7*s*. 6*d*.

[2] *The Science of Society*. Stephen Cotgrove. Allen & Unwin, 40*s*. (paperback, 28*s*.).

Cotgrove gives himself more limited terms of reference with the result that his book is very relevant to the theme of this article. The emphasis throughout, he tells us, is on the sociological study of industrial society, with particular reference to modern England. It is closely structured, looking in turn at the family, the educational system, the economic system, the political system, and systems of belief; and in the second half at social processes such as differentiation and deviance. In a smooth flowing text most of the important pieces of research of recent decades are mentioned. Although it would be wrong to search here for the strategy for education for which Professor Taylor feels a need, the book does provide a useful map of the terrain for any teacher's kit bag.

But the sociologist's abstraction from reality, though useful, is not the whole of it. In a welcome reminder of another dimension of a teacher's life—the riddles and ruderies that have filled children's minds down the centuries—we have now a paperback version of the Opies' famous study of the lore and language of school children, first published in 1959.[1] One chapter in this fascinating playground anthology is headed 'the child and authority', and on such a theme the sociologist, with all his careful correlations, would no doubt give us an austere piece of reasoning. Not so the Opies, who start their chapter:

> God made the bees,
> The bees make honey;
> We do the work,
> The teacher gets the money

This is the ordinary child, fun-loving and full of affection. To get the balance right we ought to end with him: childhood, mercifully, is not all delinquency and dullness—

> . . . the picture which emerges is a happy one. It contains some tears but much laughter, some hard knocks but no whining; and the warm feeling the children have for their homes, and the pleasant relationship they evidently enjoy with their parents . . . should gladden the heart of the most confirmed pessimist.

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[1] *The Lore and Language of School Children*. Iona and Peter Opie. Oxford Paperbacks, 1967. 12*s*. 6*d*.

# Reviews

## Art in the Primary School

by Kay Melzi

*Blackwell 42s.*

Miss Melzi has long been known for her work at Homerton College of Education and hundreds of students have been inspired by her over the years. Many teachers will turn with pleasure to this book which goes into such detail about the teaching of art in Primary schools. Others may be critical of some aspects of it. But her book rings with sincerity and conviction which can only come from years of personal experience with children and with training students.

The work could be criticised for being too long but it is a good reference book and is meant to be an aid to those who need help in practical work. Very detailed advice is given on every aspect of teaching, even to the type of question and comment that might be made to a child. Suggestions on organisation are listed and it is interesting to the reader to see a sequence of stages in giving a lesson set out so clearly. It is open to criticism whether these would be wholly acceptable but it is Miss Melzi's belief that a lesson should be planned and many teachers will be glad to read about the way she tackles the job of teaching art. Every encouragement is given, these days, for children and students to work 'as they please' but this is not easy for many and Miss Melzi gives an idea of how a teacher can go about the difficult business of getting children started.

The use of the environment has been plugged *ad infinitum* in the last decade and, although we would encourage this fully, there is also much that can be done through direct observation. Miss Melzi's chapter on collecting visual material and the way she uses it will be a revelation to those who question what children can do from study and memory in the classroom. Correlation with other subjects as a forced link tends to reduce art to a visual mirror of experience already explored and here in this book a case is made for art in its own right. We feel sure that a writer of such integrity would not mean that this sort of expression should be isolated in the classroom into a subject on the timetable for children in a Primary school. The ways of working in all subjects on the curriculum, for example science and mathematics especially, would give immediate opportunities in three dimensions.

Clearly it has taken many years to compile this work, but time has overrun its scope. The space given to work in three dimensions is comparatively thin and even this contains mostly work with puppets, clay and some manufactured materials such as balsa wood and wire. This is a disappointing chapter in that little reference is made to the whole field of building from improvised materials found easily in everyday living. It reflects a teaching of art which was excellent of its kind of the generation now passing and it is to be regretted that there is this omission and that more information has not been given about the experimental work that is done in a variety of media by children.

Unfortunately the illustrations do not do justice to this book. They are blocked together and there are so many references to different pages that one is apt to be irritated and to skip them and to wish that fewer reproductions had been selected. It would have been sufficient to cut the illustrations by half and to have some of them in colour juxtaposed with the text to which they are related. The essence of so much children's work is colour and, apart from the dust cover, not one reproduction shows this.

Teachers in Primary schools would be the first to say that they need practical help and in this book no detail has been left to chance. The humanity of the writer has made her give generously of her own knowledge of the skills, of the technique of teaching with art materials and the order of the classroom, so that teachers will be helped to make their contribution in their own way.

Miss Melzi has made many wise comments; this is one to be remembered: 'The teacher must sustain a keenly experimental attitude in order to keep alive creative interest, and children's work should never be allowed to degenerate into a series of undemanding, repetitive exercises.' C.M.S.



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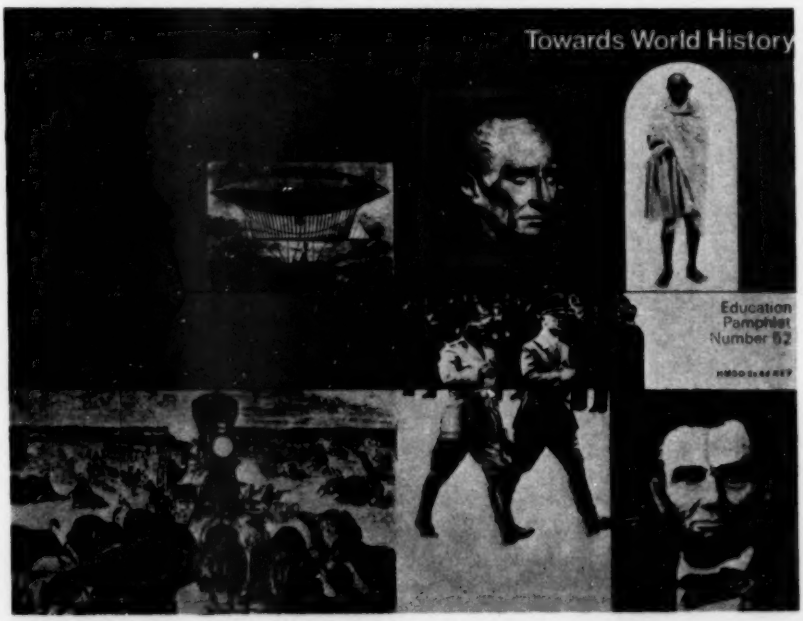
# Towards World History

This pamphlet considers one of the principal challenges to the traditional history syllabus, namely the movement towards the teaching of world history. It deals with the handling of this work with younger as well as with older pupils and discusses the case for reconsidering the history syllabus as a whole in the light of twentieth century developments in the direction of 'One World'.